



**CYTOGENETIC STUDIES ON PENTACHLOROPHENOL
(PCP) AND 2,4-DICHLOROPHENOXYACETIC ACID
(2,4-D) STRESSED MICE (*MUS MUSCULUS*)**

DISSERTATION

**SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE AWARD OF THE DEGREE OF**

Master of Philosophy

IN

Zoology

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2003

Fed in Computer



28 SEP 2004



DS3394



**DEDICATED
TO MY FAMILY**

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GENETOX



Dr Waseem Ahmad (Faridi)
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Certificate

I certify that the work entitled “ **Cytogenetic studies on Pentachlorophenol (PCP) and 2,4-Dichlorophenoxyacetic Acid (2,4-D) stressed mice (*Mus musculus*)**” is completed under my supervision by Miss Rubeena Sabir. The work is original and independently carried by the candidate herself. It embodies some of the interesting findings and add to the existing knowledge on the present topic.

I allow her to submit the dissertation for the degree of Master of Philosophy.

A handwritten signature in black ink, which appears to read 'Waseem Ahmad Faridi'. The signature is written in a cursive, flowing style.

(Dr. Waseem Ahmad Faridi)
Supervisor

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ATP	Adenosine Triphosphate
2,4 DB	2,4 Dichlorophenoxy butyric acid
2,4 DEP	2,4 Dichlorophenoxy ethyl phosphate
2,4D	2,4 Dichlorophenoxy acetic acid
C	Centigrade
CA	Chromosomal Aberration
CCT	Canadian center of toxicology
CHO	Chinese Hamster Ovary
DMSO	Dimethyl Sulpho Oxide
DNA	Deoxyribo Nucleic Acid
DPX	Distyrene Plsticizer Xylene
DW	Distilled Water
EEC	European Economic Community
EPA	Environmental Protection Agency
EPAFI	Environmental Protection Agency Federal Insecticide
EPAPAG	Environmental Protection Agency Pesticide Assessment Guideline.
gm	gram
H ₂ O	Water
hr	hour
IARC	International Agricultural Research Council
IARCGAP	International Agency for Research on Cancer
KCl	Potassium Chloride

KH₂PO₄	Potassium Phosphate Monobasic
LD	Lethal Dose
M	Molar
MAFF	Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries
MCPB	4 (4-chloro-o-tolyloxy) butric acid
MNCEs	Micronucleated Normochromatic Erythrocytes
MPCEs	Micronucleated Polychromatic Erylonocytic
NTP	National Toxicological Programme
OECD	Organisation for Economic Corporation and Development
ppm	parts per million
SCE	Sister Chromatid Exchange
TEPA	Tris-azaridinyI-phosphine-oxide
TMP	Trimethylphospate

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Box 1: The pesticidal Manual: Incorporating. The Agrochemical Handbook. Tenth Edition, Clive Tomlin (2,4-D)

Box 2: The Pesticidal Manual. Incorporating: The Agrochemical Handbook. Tenth Edition, Clive Tomlin (PCP).

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CHAPTER

Introduction and Review of Literature

Review of literature on 2,4-D

Review of literature on PCP

INTRODUCTION AND REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Genetic toxicology has been greatly benefitted by various cytogenetic techniques that mainly deals with the mutagenic effects of various chemicals, radiations and the consequences of human health exposure to such mutagens. Investigations on the mechanism of mutagenesis and application of test systems to characterize mutagens are the important goals of this specialized area. Significantly, it has provided the primary source of data on health effects for chemical safety evaluation on existing and new products, without which many potentially hazardous chemicals would have been identified only through human experience.

Broadly speaking, mutagenesis include induction of DNA damage and genetic alterations that range from one or few DNA base pairs to gross changes in chromosome structure or number. An agent that causes mutation is a mutagen and the more specialized term clastogen or aneugen is reserved for agent that causes chromosome aberration or aneuploidy respectively.

Cytogenetic studies further, offer a direct link between mutagenicity tests in experimental organisms leading to effects in humans (Bender et al., 1988; Sorsa et al., 1992). There are two major reasons of concern about human exposure to mutagens. An increase in mutation rate in human germ cells may cause an increased incidence of genetic diseases in future generation and second, mutations in somatic cells may contribute to various disorders and further, genetic alterations have already been implicated in carcinogenesis (Hoffman, 1994). A common chemical or physical agent can facilitate interaction with nucleic acids; the universality of target molecule is the key to the discipline of the genetic toxicology (Dolls, 1994).

It all began with the mutation research by Muller (1927) that X ray cause sex linked lethal mutations in fruitfly *Drosophila melanogaster*. The mutagenic properties of other chemicals were observed much later (Oehlkers, 1943; Auerbach and Robson, 1946). Subsequently, suitable routine protocols for detection and evaluation of environmental mutagens were and are still being

devised. Along the earliest attempts by Demerec (1956) and Hartman et al., (1971), the awareness that some of the hereditary diseases observed in human populations might be environmental in origin developed in due course (Rowley et al., 1983; Burgdorf et al., 1997). Increased attention has now been focussed on the potential genetic risks in animals and humans exposed to environmental chemicals. Over two hundred in vitro and in vivo tests have been developed and used to determine the intrinsic mutagenicity and potential carcinogenicity of chemicals (Waters et al., 1988). The short-term tests among others include, gene mutation in *Salmonella*, cultured mammalian cells gene mutation and chromosomal aberrations, and mammalian bone marrow cytogenetic methods comprising micronucleus and chromosomal aberrations. Thus various compounds were tested in both somatic and germ cell assays to discriminate mutagens and non mutagens. The data was compiled by the U.S Environmental Protection Agency and International Agency for Research on Cancer Generating Activity Profile (EPA; IARC GAP, available on MDW) as well as by EPA GENE-TOX data base (available on TOXNET). The quantitative results for various important chemicals are summarized in table.1A and B for ready reference.

The intensive use of chlorinated phenoxyalkanoic acids as herbicides in agriculture and forestry and also as defoliants made 2,4-Dichlorophenoxyacetic acid (2,4-D) as omnipresent. 2,4-D was the first successful selective herbicide developed. It was introduced in 1946 and rapidly became most widely used herbicide in the world and function as systemic herbicide. After 50 years of use, 2,4-D is still the third most widely used herbicide in the United States and Canada and is being widely distributed to farmers in India, while Pentachlorophenol (PCP), a chlorinated phenolic compound, is a man-made substance, not occur naturally, and until recently the most widely used biocide in USA as well as in our country.

A quick glance of Table 2 will show that the sale of herbicides exceeded the combined sales of insecticides and fungicides. A large amount of this steep rise was due to 2,4-D. However, the genetic effects of either chemicals have been

Table 1 A : Summary of the results of various types of test in some important organisms using various chemicals (Waters et al., 1994)

Chemicals	Germ cell mutation b						Bacterial mutation	Mammalian cells c		Bone marrow c	
	S S		C C C C		D D M		ames test test	CA	GM	CA	MN
	L L		C G G O		L L H						
	P O		C C G E		M R T						
Agents negative in multiple germ cell assays											
Dichlorvos	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	-	-
PCBs	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	?	-	-	-
Ethylene dibromide	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	-	-
Acrylonitrile	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	-	-
Cyclohexylamine	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-
Nitrofurantion	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	?	-	-	-
2,4-Dinitrotoluene	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	?	-	-
Formaldehyde	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	-	- ^a
Cyclamate, calcium ^e	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	- ^a	-
Caffeine	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	?	-
Parathion	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Theobromine	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	?	+	- ^a	+
Isoniazide	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	- ^a	-
Cadmium	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	?	+
Arsenic +3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	?	+
Benomy1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	- ^a	+
Propylene oxide	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	-	+
Vinyl chloride	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	+	+
Methl parathion	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	+	+
Agents confirmed negative in a single germ cell assay											
Dieldrin	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
1,1-Dimethylhydrazine	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	-	-
Epichlorohydrin	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	?	-
Chloradane	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	-
Folpet	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	-	-
Hexachlorobiphenyl	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

a Positive (+), negative (-) and conflicting or inconclusive (?) test result; F=female treatments positive. b Germ cell tests include the mouse specific locus tests: SLP = post-spermatogonial and SLO = other stages: chromosomal aberration in vivo: CCC = spermatocytes treated and observed, CGC = spermatogonia treated and observed, CGG = spermatogonia treated and observed, and COE = oocytes or embryos: dominate lethal tests: DLM = mice and DLR = rats; and the mouse heritable translocation test (MHT).

c Mammalian tests include chromosomal aberrations (CA) gene mutation (GM) and micronuclei (MN).

d Test result corresponds to the same species tested for dominant lethals; formaldehyde, + in rats; Ca cyclamate, + in gerbils; isoniazide, - in rats; benomyl, - in mice.

e Sodium cyclamate was negative for DLM, CGG and CGC but caused chromosomal aberrations in somatic cells in vitro.

Table 1 B : Summary of the results of various types of test in some important organisms using various chemicals (Waters et al., 1994)

Chemicals	Germ cell mutation b									Bacterial mutation ames test	Mammalian cells c		Bone marrow c	
	S	S	C	C	C	C	D	D	M		CA	GM	CA	MN
	L	L	C	G	G	O	L	L	H					
	P	O	C	C	G	E	M	R	T					
Agents positive in multiple germ cell assays														
Cyclophosphamide	+		+	-	+	+	+	+	+		+	+	+	+
Myleran	+	-		-	+									
Ethylene oxide	-	+												
Methyl methanesulfonate	+	-	+	-		+								
Ethyl methanesulfonate	+	-												
Mitomycin C	-	+	+	-	+	+	+		+	+	+	+	+	+
Ethyl nitrosourea	+	+		-	+		+		+	+	+	+	+	+
Methyl nitrosourea	+						+		+	+	+	+	+	
Acrylamide	+	+	+	-	+		+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+
Triethylenemelamine	+	+	+	+	+		+	+	+	+	+		+	+
Procarbaine HCL	+	+			+		+		+	-		+	+	+
Hycanthone methanesulfonate	?	-		-		+	F	+		+		+	+	+
Dibromochloropropane	-	-			+		-	+		+	+		+	+ ^d
Thiotepa			+		+	+	+		+	+	+	+	+	+
Triaiquone				-		+	+		+	+	+		+	+
Trimethyl phosphate							+		+	+			+	+
Isopropyl methanesulfonate				-		+	+		+			+	+	
Tepa							+		+	+	+		+	
6-Mercaptopurine	-	-	+				+		-	+	+	+		+
Cisplatin			+	?	+		F			+	+	+	+	
Bleomycin			+	+	+		F			-	+	+	+	?
Ethanol					-	+	+	+		-	-	-	-	-
Diethyl sulfate	+						+			+	+	+		
Agents confirmed positive in a single germ cell assay														
Adriamycin				+			F			+	+	+	+	+
Benzo (a) pyrene		-					+			+	+	+		+
Nitrogen mustard ^e							+			+	+	+		+
Methotrexate					+					-	+	+	+	+
Hexametapol							+			-		?	+	+
Methyl tepa							+			+				+
Methyl chloride							+			+		+		

a Positive (+), Negative (-), and conflicting or inconclusive (?) test result are indicated; F=female treatments positive.

b Germ cell tests include the mouse specific locus tests: SLP = post-spermatogonial and SLO=other stages; chromosomal aberrations in vivo: CCC=spermatocytes treated and observed, CGC=spermatogonia treated and spermatocytes observed, CGG = spermatogonia treated and observed and COE= oocytes or embryos; dominant lethal tests: DLM=mice and DLR=rats; and the mouse heritable translocation test (MHT)

c Mammalian tests include chromosomal aberrations (CA) gene mutation (GM), and micronuclei (MN).

d Positive in rats but negative in mice.

e Includes nitrogen mustard, nitrogen mustard N-oxide and chlormethine.

Table 2: Production and sales of 2, 4-D and other herbicides in comparison with other organic pesticides (Seiler, 1976)

Year	US production (tons)				Use (tons)		US sales (million dollars)		
	2, 4-D	Other herbicides	Insecticides	Synthetic organic pesticides	2, 4-D	Other herbicides	Herbicides	Insecticides	Fungicides
1945	450								
1950	5 600					640 a			
1960	15 500	15 200		296 000	2 500	3950 a			
1964	23 800	42 800					200		
1965			206 000	400 000					
1967			215 000	480 000			450	301	55
1968	36 000	1 07 000				4500 a	505	335	60
1969	19 000	1 24 000	248 000	545 000			575	375	65
1970	20 000		256 000	505 000					
1974	27 000						1350	600	
1975					1600	3400 b			
1977	30 000								

a West Germany (FRG)

b Sweden.

less investigated. The available data on 2,4-D and PCP are reviewed and presented as a separate section in the ensuing text.

Review of literature on 2, 4-D

A brief resume on physical and chemical properties of 2,4-D has been presented in Box 1. Chlorophenoxyacetic herbicides mimic the action of indolacetic acid, a natural plant product hormone. First put to the use in agricultural practice in the mid 1940's, 2, 4-D, leads to differential growth rate in petioles, thickening of leaves, increase in turgor and drying of stem and leaves in treated plants (Crafts and Robins, 1973). The mode of action of such compounds has long been thought to involve some influence on the nucleic acid metabolism. In plants it has indeed been found that 2,4-D induced accumulation of DNA, RNA and protein (Mairer et al., 1971; Ashton et al., 1974; Corbett et al., 1974; Loos et al., 1975; Nagy et al., 1975; Wegler, 1977). Human exposure to such compound usually occurs through inhalation, skin contact or ingestion through accident or contaminated food. Occupational exposure of man to this compound was reported to cause asthenospermia, necrospermia and teratospermia (Lerda and Rizzi, 1991). The evidence of carcinogenicity of 2,4-D in animals and humans is indicated and therefore, genotoxicity has been tested in various organisms. Some of the findings are summarized in Table-3.

It is clear from the summarized data that although 2,4-D has been reasonable tested for mutagenicity but found to be non mutagenic in most systems and that not many reports have appeared in mice; the matter with respect to mutagenicity is yet not resolved at least in mice, In one case significant increase of damage occurred in chromosomes in cultured human cells at low exposure levels (Schlop et al., 1990) and yet 2,4-D reportedly not damaged DNA in human lung cells (Seiler, 1978). The evidence is too equivocal to draw any conclusions.

There is also some questions about whether the tumors are associated with a specific organ or are non-specific. Female mice given a single injection of 2,4-D developed cancer, reticulum-cells sarcomas (Forest Service, 1984).

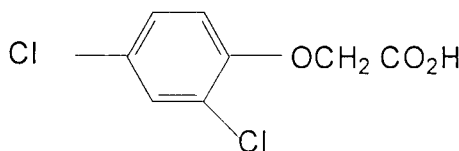
The Pesticide Manual

Incorporating The Agrochemicals Handbook
TENTH EDITION
Edition, Clive Tomlin

2,4-D

Herbicide

aryloxyalkanoic acid



NOMENCLATURE

2, 4-D

Common name 2, 4-D (BSI, E-ISO, (m) F-ISO, WSSA), 2, 4-I A (JMAF).

IUPAC name (2, 4-dichlorophenoxy) acetic acid.

C.A. name (2,4-dichlorophenoxy) acetic acid. CAS RN [94-75-7].

2,4-D-butyl CAS RN [1929-73-3].

2,4-D-butyl CAS RN [94-84-4].

2,4-D-dimethylammonium CAS RN [2008-39-1].

2,4-D-diolsamine CAS RN [5742-19-8].

2,4-D-isocetyl CAS RN [25168-26-7] (formerly [1280-20-2]).

2,4-D-isopropyl CAS RN [94-11-1].

2,4-D-rolamine CAS RN [2569-01-9].

PHYSIOCO-CHEMICAL PROPERTIES

2,4-D

Mol. Wt. 221.0 Mol. Formula $C_8H_6Cl_2O_3$ Form Colourless powder. M.p. $140.5^{\circ}C$ V.p. 1.1×10^{-2} Pa ($20^{\circ}C$) SG/density 1.565 ($30^{\circ}C$) K logP = 2.58-2.83 (pH 1)

Solubility In water 311 mg / l (pH 1, $25^{\circ}C$). In ethanol 1250, diethyl ether 243, heptane 1.1, toluene 6.7, xylene 5.8 (all in g / kg, $20^{\circ}C$). Insoluble in petroleum oils. Mono-n-butylamine salt : In water at $30^{\circ}C$, 18 g/l. Stability 2,4-D is a strong acid, and forms water-soluble salts with alkali metals and amines. Hard water leads to precipitation of the calcium and magnesium salts, but a sequestering agent is included in formulations to prevent this. PKa 2.64.

2,4-D-butyl

Mol. Wt. 321.2 Mol. Formula $C_{14}H_{18}Cl_2O_4$

2,4-D-butyl

Mol. Wt. 277.1 Mol formula $C_{12}H_{14}Cl_2O_3$.

2,4-D-dimethylammonium

Mol. Wt. 266.1 Mol. Formula $C_{10}H_{13}Cl_2NO_3$ M.P. $85-87^{\circ}C$ Solubility In water at $20^{\circ}C$, 3 kg/l. Soluble in alcohols an acetone.

Insoluble in kerosene and diesel oil.

2,4-D-Diolsamine

Mol. Wt. 326.2 Mol. Formula $C_{12}H_{17}Cl_2NO_5$.

s

2,4-D-isocetyl

Mol. Wt. 333.3 Mol. Formula $C_{16}H_{17}Cl_2O_3$.

2,4-D-isopropyl

Forms Colourless liquid. M.p. $5-10^{\circ}C$ and $20-25^{\circ}C$ (two forms) B.p. $130^{\circ}C$ /l mm Hg Solubility Practically insoluble in water; soluble in alcohols, most oils.

2,4-D-sodium

Solubility In water 18 g/l ($20^{\circ}C$).

2,4-D-trolamine

Mol. Wt. 370.2 Mol. Formula $C_{14}H_{21}Cl_2NO_6$ M.p. $142-144^{\circ}C$ Solubility In water 4.4 kg/l ($30^{\circ}C$).

COMMERCIALISATION

History The potent effects of its salts on plant growth were first described by P.W. Zimmernan & A. E. Hitchcock (Contrib. Boyce Thompson Inst., 1942. 12.321) and the early history is covered in The Hormone Weedkillers; C. Kirby (1980).



Crop Protection Publications



Table 3: Summary of results on the genotoxicity of 2,4-D in different test system (Tripathy et al., 1993)
(w, weak; + positive; – negative)

Test organism	Test Type	Conclusion
<i>Salmonella typhimurium</i>	Mutation (histidine reversion assay)	w
<i>Bacillus subtilis</i>	Mutation	–
<i>E. coli</i>	Mutation	+
<i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i>	Mitotic recombination	–
		+
<i>Aspergillus nidulans</i>	Mitotic recombination	–
<i>Allium cepa</i>	Clastogenicity, spindle dysfunction	+
<i>Allium ascalonicum</i>	Clastogenicity, spindle dysfunction	+
<i>Oryza sativa</i>	Morphological mutants	+
Wheat	Mutation	+
	Clastogenicity, spindle dysfunction	+
Barley	Micronuclei	+
<i>Drosophila melanogaster</i>	Karyological abnormality	+
	Sex-linked recessive lethal test	–
		+
	Non-disjunction	–
	Wing spot test	+
Rats & mice	Clastogenicity, polyploidy	+
Chinese hamster V79 fibroblasts	HGPRT mutation	+
Human SV-40 transformed cells	Unscheduled DNA synthesis	+
Human lymphocytes	Chromosome aberrations, Sister-chromatid exchange	+

However the above studies on 2,4-D related carcinogenicity were considered inadequate by International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC, 1974). In humans, a variety of studies gave conflicting results, though some studies suggested an association of 2,4-D exposure with cancer (Hoar et al., 1986; Zahm et al., 1990). An increased occurrence of Non Hodgkins lymphomas was common among a Kansas and Nebraska farm population associated with the spraying of 2,4-D. Other studies from New Zealand, Australia and Vietnam were negative (Federal Register, 1990). There remains considerable controversy about the methods used in these studies and their results.

Since, 2,4-D increasingly used in water bodies to kill weeds, studies on aquatic organisms like fish were natural. Some formulations of 2,4-D were highly toxic to fish while others were less so (National Research Council, Canada; 1978). Chromosomal alterations have been studied for many decades and it was immediately appreciated that they are associated with malignancy (Boveri, 1902). Some deletions have a break point in a similar location to constitutional fragile sites in response to chemical carcinogens (Whang-peng, 1982). Furthermore, mutagenic chemicals have the probability of inducing carcinogenic effects and majority of these chemicals have been shown to cause tumors at specific or multiple sites in fish (Harshbarger and Clark, 1990). A clear association between chromosome rearrangements and cancer has been found and virtually all tumors contain structural as well as numerical chromosome rearrangements (Solomon et al., 1991; Rabbits, 1994; Mitelman, 1994). Fish responds analogous to mammalian test species to chemicals by inducing peroxisome proliferation (Yang et al., 1990) and cytochrome P450 monooxygenases to metabolise many carcinogens in liver (Stegeman and Lech, 1991). In a comparative study, Regal et al (1983) reported that fish tends to be sensitive to UV radiation and mutagenic carcinogens than mammalian cells. These observations were based on the cytogenetic end points in toxicological evaluation of industrial chemicals, pesticides and development of new pharmaceuticals and therapeutic compounds.

That the fish can serve as an excellent model for monitoring genotoxic

effects by measuring the chromosomal aberration and micronucleus test and the utility of these tests including apoptotic studies on 2,4-D in various fish has been amply shown by many studies (Ali and Ahmad, 1997; Ahmad et al., 2001; Farha et al., 2001). Thus the quantitative risk from exposure of fish to chromosomes damaging agents 2,4-D in this case, is a useful addition to the screening test designed to protect public health.

As a technical advancement, many protocols were developed to facilitate chromosome preparation during the past several years. Hsu (1952) introduced, the use of hypotonic treatment for accurate analysis of human chromosomes, which is considered as boon for all karyological studies. A revolution in chromosome cytology took place when pretreatment with colchicine coupled with squashing was introduced (Roberts, 1964), followed by the flame drying method (Denton and Howell, 1969). The limiting factor apparently is obtaining consistently good chromosome spread from the tissue and for that, many different techniques are being used to perform karyological studies, either in vivo or in vitro. Such methods are based on the use of colchicine to quickly block the proliferating cell population from suitable organs like kidney, spleen, gill epithelia and other tissues (Ohono et al., 1965).

Bacterial tests so far have had a negative record with phenoxyacids. Fiscor et al., (1972) tested 2,4-D dimethylamine salts as commercial formulation in five strains of *E. coli*. Andersen et al., (1972) used *Salmonella* strains for their investigation on many herbicides, like 2,4-D; 3,4-D; 2,4,-DB; 3,4-DB; 2,4-DEP; 2,4-DP and MCPB. They also investigated 2,4-D and 2,4-DEP in forward and reverse mutation experiments on phage T₄. The Ames test of *salmonella* mutants by Carere (1976) who tested mecoprop in the four strains as well as forward mutational system in *Streptomyces coelicolor*, no mutagenic activity was found. Beside these studies, negative results in bacterial assay are also on record (Fahrig, 1974; Wild, 1975). There are however, a few reports on marginal effects of phenoxyacids in bacterial systems, which may indicate a certain weak potential for DNA damage (Buselmaier, 1972; Zetterberg, 1977).

On the other hand, cytogenetic studies on phenoxyacids in plant cell culture are manifold and the results can broadly be divided in two groups. In the first group, no consistent trend was obvious regarding the production of chromosomal aberrations or other mitotic irregularities under the influence of 2,4-D and even negative association of anaphase irregularities are described (Singh et al., 1975; 1977). The second series of investigation however, showed positive co-relation of polyploidy and chromosomal aberrations with varying concentrations of 2,4-D (Kallak et al., 1971; Dev et al., 1973; Libbenga et al., 1973; Butcher et al., 1975). Earlier, Derscheid (1952) observed morphological abnormalities in barley, which were not however transmitted to succeeding generations. The induction of heritable changes by 2,4-D in oats though confirmed later (Seiler 1978). An analogous observations on somatic mutations in *Pelagonium zonale* by the same compound produced a slight but significant increase in mutational frequency (Pohlheim et al., 1977). Chromosomal aberrations were also noted in pollen mother cells of *Vicia faba* in rather higher frequencies after spray treatment of the plants or soaking of seeds with 2,4-D solutions (Amer et al., 1974).

In whole plants, some authors described pronounced effects on chromosomes and only rarely no influence on chromosomal aberrations (McMohan et al., 1960). The common cytological observations included polyploidy (Kar, 1975), stickiness, lagging chromosomes, micronuclei and chromosomal fragmentation (Grant et al., 1973). At high doses 2,4-D produce chromatid breaks in root cells of *Allium cepa*, whereas in longer treatment in all concentrations chromosome breaks were observed (Crocker et al., 1953). A very interesting result was cited with 2,4-D in this organism where C tumors were conspicuous (Bushra et al; 2001). Under normal field conditions several weeds respond to 2,4-D treatment by aberrant mitosis (Tomkins et al., 1976). C-mitosis and endo polyploidy in 2,4-D treated plant cells has been hypothesized as being due to an interaction of 2,4-D with spindle fibre protein (Muhling, 1960).

Investigations in *Drosophila* with phenoxyacids pointed a mutagenic potential, thus showing somatic mutations, chromosome loss and other gross

effects and sex lethality (Tripathy et al., 1993). A sex linked, genetically unstable test system using somatic mutation for altered eye color was used to test the mutagenic activity of 2,4-D in fruit fly and the results were compared with those from an analogous but genetically stable and less sensitive system (Rasmusson et al., 1977). 2,4-D was also found to be slightly mutagenic for *Drosophila* in recessive lethal test. Sex linked recessive lethality is known to be most sensitive technique in mutation detection with *Drosophila* (Vogel et al., 1974).

Review of literature on PCP:

PCP and other chlorophenols are used primarily for protecting wood from fungal growth. Other applications include; indoor disinfectant, leather and textile and herbicide use. Although in some countries their use has been discontinued or abandoned as a result of severe restrictions, PCP is still an important pesticide in many developing countries including India more so because of its low cost and broad spectrum use. In some developed countries like France and USA, several thousand tons of PCP are still being produced annually (IARC, 1991; McConnell et al., 1991). Even where PCP use has been abandoned, it continues to be an important environmental contaminant, since it is imported via various materials treated with it.

PCP can be metabolized by many aquatic and soil micro organisms, though environmental conditions are usually unfavorable for its bio-degradation (Orser and Lange, 1994; Laine and Jorgensen, 1996). Slow elimination in surface waters, high persistence in sediments, formation of stable metabolites, and the limited adaptation of micro organisms to chlorophenols owing to their high microbial toxicity imply that chlorophenols are practically non-biodegradable in the aquatic environment (UBA, 1996). Importantly, its trace contaminants, polychlorinated dibenzo-p-dioxins (PCDDs) and poly chlorinated dibenzofurans (PCDFs) are not metabolized and hence hazardous (Bajpai and Banerji, 1992; Sal Kinoa et al., 1989).

Chlorophenols are relatively water soluble in the anionic form therefore, soil contamination may lead to the contamination of ground water as well. The

solubility of the dioxin/furan contaminants is very low and these contaminants are readily absorbed onto soil particles and other surfaces; hence, the risk of contamination of finished drinking water is not great. In surface waters however, organic or clay particles easily transport dioxins/furans to distant sites from their origin (Koistinen et al., 1995). Significantly, PCP is accumulated by aquatic organisms through uptake from the surrounding water or along the food chain (WHO, 1987). Other salient features about its physical and chemical properties have been presented in Box 2.

The kinetics of PCP has been reviewed on a number of occasions (Ahlborg and Thunberg, 1980; WHO, 1987; IARC, 1991). A general overview and recent results are presented below, in reference to PCP.

PCP is well absorbed orally (Reigner et al., 1992), although bioavailability may be influenced by food (Yuan et al., 1994). During occupational exposure, PCP is well absorbed through dermal and pulmonary routes (IARC, 1991) which is well supported by animal studies (WHO, 1987; Regner et al., 1992). It is likely that PCP is conjugated to glucuronic acid and excreted into urine, even if the rate of glucuronidation is controversial (Reigner et al., 1992; Wester et al., 1993; Yuan et al., 1994). There is some uncertainty as to the elimination rate of PCP (Reigner et al., 1992).

A number of toxic effects in short-term tests have been attributed to impurities present in technical grade PCP preparations. Rats receiving technical grade for long periods had slow growth rates, liver enlargement, porphyria, and increased activities of some liver microsomal enzymes (Goldstein et al., 1977; Kimbrough and Linder, 1978). This was not so in purified PCP (Pohjanvirta and Tuomisto, 1994). Some effects on enzyme activity, such as strong inhibition of sulfotransferase activity are due to PCP itself (Boberg et al., 1983).

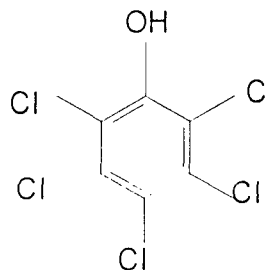
A number of effects on immune systems have been also been noted: for example reduced humoral immunity and impairment of T-cell cytolytic activity and decreased cell-mediated and humoral immunity in mice and rats are well studied (Kerkvliet et al., 1982; Exon and Koller, 1983). Although not teratogenic, PCP is embryo/fetotoxic at high doses in rats (Schwetz et al., 1978; Exon and Koller,

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pentachlorophenol

Insecticide Fungicide
Herbicide



NOMENCLATURE

Pentachlorophenol

Common name PCP (WSSA, JMAF), pentachlorophenol (BSI, E-ISO, F-ISO, accepted in lieu of a common name)

780 pentachlorophenol

IUPAC name pentachlorophenol,

C.A. name pentachlorophenol. CAS RN /87-86-5/ Other names PCP.

Sodium pentachlorophenoxide

Common name sodium pentachlorophenoxide (BSI, E-ISO), pentachlorophenate de sodium(F-ISO).

IUPAC name sodium pentachlorophenoxide : sodium pentachlorophenate.

PHYSICO-CHEMICAL PROPERTIES

Pentachlorophenol

Mol. Wt. 266.3 Mol. Formula C_6HCl_5O

Form Colourless crystals, with a phenolic odour, (tech., dark grey), M.p. 191 °C; (tech. 187-189 °C) B.p 309-310 °C (decomp.) V.p. 16 Pa(100 °C). SG/density 1.98 (22 °C) Solubility In water 80 mg/l (30 °C). Soluble in most organic solvents, e.g. acetone 215 g/l(20 °C). Slightly soluble in carbon tetrachloride and prafins. The sodium, calcium and magnesium salts are soluble in water. Stability Relatively stable and non-hygrosopic. PKa it is a weak acid, pK, 4.71 Flash point Not flammable

Pentachlorophenyl laurate

Mol. Wt. 448.6 Mol. Formula $C_{18}H_{21}Cl_5O_2$

Sodium pentachlorophenoxide

Mol. Wt. 288.3 Mol. Formula C_6Cl_5NaO

Solubility Crystallises from as a monohydrate, solubility in water 330 g/l (25 °C).

Insoluble in petroleum oils.

COMMERCIALIZATION

History Introduced c. 1936 as a timber preservative and later used as a general disinfectant. Manufacturer Chapman.

APPLICATIONS

Uses Pentachlorophenol is used to control termites and, frequently, as an ester (such as pentachlorophenyl laurate) to protect wood from fungal rots and wood-boring insects, and as a general herbicide. The sodium salt is used as a general sisinfectant, e.g. for trays in mushroom houses. Formulation type GR; WP; OI.

ANALYSIS

Product analysis by titration with alkali (MAFF Ref. Bk., 1958, No. 1, p. 64), Residues determined by colorimetry of derivatives (W.W. Kilgore & K.W. Chang Pestic. Plant Growth Regul, Food Addit., 1967, 5, 313; Anal Methods Pestic. Plant Growth Regul., 1972, 6, 581) or by gic (AOAC Methods, 1990, 985. 24)

MAMMALIAN TOXICOLOGY

Pentachlorophenol

Reviews Environment Health Criteria 71 (WHO, 1987). Acute oral LD₅₀ for rats 210mg/kg. Skin and eye Acute percutaneous LD₅₀ not available Irritating to skin (the solid and aqueous solution> 10 g/l), eyes and mucous membranes. NOEL No deaths occurred among dogs and rats receiving 3.9-10 mg daily for 70-190.d. Toxicity class WHO Ib; EPA II.



Crop Protection Publications



1982; Welsh et al., 1987). The high dose found to reduce the number of offspring, neonatal body weight, neonatal survival and growth of weanlings (Schwetz et al 1978). Individual developmental effects of purified (98%) and technical grade (88.4%) of PCP when investigated, it was noted that purified PCP induced delayed fetal development without simultaneous material toxicity, while technical grade showed no such effects in rats (Schwetz et al., 1974).

It was Seiler (1991) who studied the genetic toxicology of PCP thoroughly. Apart from few scattered observations on mutagenic activity attributed to oxygen radical formation by its metabolite, PCP apparently produced no DNA damage. The subsequent studies supported these findings (Jansson and Jansson, 1992; Dahlhaus et al., 1994, 1995; Naito et al., 1994; Waidyanath et al., 1994; Sai-Kato et al., 1995; Wang and Lin, 1995). There is some evidence of weak clastogenic effects in chromosomal aberration assays in vitro and in lymphocytes of exposed persons in vivo (Bauchinger et al., 1982; Seiler, 1991). 2,4,6-trichlorophenol reported to induce chromosome mal-segregation rather than mutations in CHO cells (Jansson and Jansson, 1992; Armstrong et al., 1993). Early carcinogenicity studies on PCP were negative or equivocal (Innes et al., 1969; Schwetz et al., 1978), but there were deficiencies in these studies (IARC, 1991). Dose-dependent and significantly elevated levels of hepatocellular adenomas and carcinomas, phaeochromocytomas, and haemangiosarcomas were observed in mice. Overall, the purer preparations were also not less tumorigenic than the technical-grade PCP. Hepatic tumours and phaeochromocytomas were more common in males, whereas haemangiosarcomas were seen only in females. McConnell et al., (1991) concluded that tumours caused primarily by PCP itself and not by impurities. There is a lack of carcinogenicity data on 2,3,4,6-tetrachlorophenol. 2,4,6-trichlorophenol although indicated hepatocellular carcinomas or adenomas in mice of both sexes and lymphomas and leukaemias in male rats (National Cancer Institute, 1979). However, generally studies so far provide sufficient evidence for PCP carcinogenicity in experimental animals (IARC, 1982).

The paramount difficulty in interpreting human studies, especially by long

term observations has been simultaneous exposure to other chemicals (Johnson, 1990; Saracci et al., 1991). Those working in chemical industries are often exposed simultaneously to chlorophenols, dibenzodioxins, dibenzofurans, and the chemical being synthesized. Similarly those working in forestry or agriculture are often exposed to chlorophenols, chlorophenoxy acids, dibenzodioxins and dibenzofurans as well as other pesticides.

PCP and other higher chlorinated phenols have been shown to act cellularly to uncouple oxidative phosphorylation and to inhibit ATPase and several other enzymes (Jorens and Schepens, 1993). This lead to excessive heat production and fever. Symptoms of acute poisoning include central nervous system disorders, dyspnoea, and hyperpyrexia and cardiac arrest along with rigor mortis (IARC, 1991). Acute human poisoning is seen only after large accidental or suicidal doses.

The human toxicology of PCP was reviewed by Jorens and Schepens (1993). In addition to metabolic, respiratory, and central nervous system effects, the clinical features include effects on skin and haematopoietic tissue, renal and gastrointestinal deficiencies. These effects have occasionally been seen after heavy occupational exposure. For example in a Chinese PCP production plant, high prevalence of chloracne, increased urinary porphyrin excretion, and decreased motor nerve conduction velocities were observed in the high-exposure area (Cheng et al., 1993; Coenraads et al., 1994). Drinking-water exposure was associated with gastrointestinal symptoms (nausea, pains, diarrhoea) and mild skin disorders like itching and eczema (Lampi et al., 1993); some of these can assumed to be due to chlorophenols as no dioxin exposure was noted (Vartiainen et al., 1995).

Immunological abnormalities were also observed in one of the study where T-cell activation and autoimmunity, functional immunodepression, and B-cell dysregulation were noted (McConnachie and Zahalsky, 1991). Colosio et al (1993) found no major clinical or laboratory signs of immune deficiency, while a study implicated chlorophenols, chlorophenoxy acids, chlorinated dibenzo-p-dioxins, and chlorinated dibenzofurans in the causation of cancer, especially soft-

tissue sarcoma and non-Hodgkin lymphoma (Lilienfeld and Gallo, 1989; Johnson, 1990; IARC, 1991). Owing to several inconsistencies, the case remained debatable. Generally, the role of chlorophenols remain more elusive than that of other chemicals of the group because the exposed groups were smaller and the number of cases relatively less.

There is some, although not irrefutable, evidence that chlorophenol preparations, including PCP, may cause cancer in humans. There seems to be no reason to believe that the problem could be overcome by advocating more purified preparations. In fact, there is little evidence that minor carcinogenic impurities, such as Trichlorinated di-benzo-P-Dioxins (TCDD) and other chlorinated dioxins and furans, would be more important than the main chemical, and there is a limited direct evidence on the basis of both animal experiments and epidemiological studies, that pure chlorophenols may, at relevant concentrations pose a risk of cancer in humans. As far as water is concerned, only the risk of chlorophenols appear reasonable, as the impurities are practically non-soluble in drinking water.

Thus in view of the conflicting reports and inconclusive results discussed at length, the evidence of carcinogenicity of 2,4-D and PCP in animals and humans was judged inadequate by competent organization (IARC, 1986). However, the reproductive effect of these compounds has been able to inflict the reproductive structural changes at moderate doses in animals. This vindicate that the humans may be at risk with the exposure of these compound, even if no direct evidence of reproductive problems associated with them exist. Besides, there remains considerable controversy about the methods used in various studies and their results. The present experiments are therefore, designed and pursued to answer some of the above malaise in accordance with the laboratory practice regulations and applicable toxicology guidelines (MAFF, 1985; EPAPAG, 1984; EEC, 1987).

The proposed work emphasize the specific objective: Assessing the cytogenetic damage induced by 2,4-D and PCP in the mouse bone marrow cells using in vivo assay by cytogenetic parameters such as chromosomal test (CA),

micronucleus assay (MNT) and the mitotic indices profiles (MI). The out come of these studies are compared to previously published in vivo genotoxic assays at appropriate places.

CHAPTER

Materials and Methods

Chromosomal Aberration Test (CA)

Micronucleus Test (MNT)

Mitotic Index (Mi.)

MATERIALS AND METHODS.

The protocols and related aspects of these experiments strictly followed the laid down norms for genotoxicity testing (MAFF, 1985; EPAPAG, 1984; EEC, 1987; 1988; EPAFI, 1990; EPEPAG, 1991). A brief detail of each event is described below:

A. Test Animal

Mus musculus, 200 in numbers comprising both the sexes were procured from CDRI Bangalore. They were of 10-18 week old with an average weight of $26.21 \pm 12-25$ gm, and housed in different groups in different cages maintained under standard conditions of temperature, humidity and light. The animals were given standard food and water ad libitum. *Mus musculus* has a standard karyotype of 20 pairs of acrocentric chromosomes including 19 pairs of autosomes and a pair of distinct X and Y sex chromosome.

B. Cytogenetic Testing Parameters :

(i) Chromosomal Aberration test (CA):

The CA was used for the detection of structural chromosomal aberrations induced by test compounds. The chemical tested was administered intraperitoneally. The somatic tissue used was bone marrow. Classical protocol using bone marrow from rodents recommended by ad-hoc committee of the Environmental Mutagen Society and the Institute of Medical Research (1972) was adopted. The extent and the type of aberration was carefully studied. Structural chromosomal aberrations classified in two types; chromosome or chromatid. An increase in polyploidy was also observed, as it may indicate that a chemical has the potential to induce numerical aberrations. Since the majority of chemical mutagens induced aberrations are of the chromatid-type, chromosome-type aberrations also occur and therefore considered in the present study.

(ii) Micronucleus Test (MNT):

Micronuclei are cytoplasmic chromatin containing bodies formed when

acentric chromosome fragments or chromosome lag behind during anaphase and fail to become incorporated into daughter nuclei during cell division. Since genetic damage result in chromosome breaks, such structurally abnormal chromosomes, or spindle abnormalities lead to micronucleus formation. The incidence of micronucleus thus serves as an index of chromosome damage. Enumerations of micronuclei is much faster and less technically demanding than the scoring of chromosomal aberration.

(iii) Mitotic Index (MI):

The calculation of the mitotic Index usually based on the formula:

$$MI = \text{Total no. of dividing cells} \times 100 / \text{Total no of cells observed}$$

In such calculations interphase, pro metaphase and sub stages are not counted.

This approach is essential, but it does not often give the true index of mitotic division, thus mitotic index should be assessed at metaphase-anaphase stage because these stages actually entitle a cell to have processed the mitotic cycle. This is designated as active mitotic index and computed by:

$$Ami = (M+A) \times 100 / TC$$

Where, M, A and TC respectively stands for metaphase, anaphase, and total number of cells observed. MI was observed by this formula and any inhibition of mitotic indices was taken as the cytotoxicity of the chemical.

Comparison on the basis concentration or duration of the test chemical was noted and contrasted with the controls to realize which agent effects more seriously over the other.

C. Test Chemicals:

The powdered form of Pentachlorophenol (99.9%) was obtained from Fluka Chemika Switzerland 76470/CH9470, CAS R No 87-86-5 while 2,4-Dichlorophenoxyacetic acid also a powdered form (98%) was purchased from the

Loba Chemie India Art.3300 under CAS No 94-75-7. Further details regarding physical and chemical features of either chemical are presented in Box 1 and 2 in Chapter I (Introduction and Review of literature).

D. Other Chemicals, Preparations of Solutions, Concentrations.

(i)Chemical Colchicine (Loba Chemie) 25mg/50ml of distilled water. (injected @ 4mg/1000gm of body weight)

Hypotonic, KCL 0.075M 0.56 % (Ranbaxy Laboratories).

Cornoy's fixative (methanol: glacial acetic, (3: 1).

Giemsa stain (5%) (Loba Chemie).

May- Gruenwald stain (Merck limited).

Sorensens buffer (pH-6.8)

Solution A, $\text{Na}_2\text{HPO}_4 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ 5.938gm/100ml

Solution B, KH_2PO_4 4.539gm/100ml

25 ml of solution A + 25 ml of solution B added to make 50ml of solution

Xylene (s d Fine Chem limited).

DPX (Glaxo Laboratories)

Fetal Bovine Serum 5% (Sigma Laboratories)

Cyclophosphamide (Sigma Laboratories) 40mg/1000 (injected @ 40mg/1000gm of body weight.)

- ii. Stock solutions Pentachlorophenol (PCP) stock solution :
1.33mg /1ml of distilled water
- 2,4-Dichlorophenoxyacetic acid (2,4-D) stock solution:
4mg/1ml of distilled water.
- iii Concentrations PCP; 5, 15 and 20mg/1000gm of body weight.
LD 50 (male) 61mg/1000gm of body weight
LD 50 (female) 59mg/1000gm of body weight
(Seiler,1990)
- 2,4-D; 25, 50 and 75mg/1000gm of body weight.
LD 50 (male) 125mg/1000gm of body weight
LD 50 (female) 125mg/1000gm of body weight
(NIOSH ,1989)

Details regarding preparation of various concentrations of chemicals has been given below:

Amount of Solute	Ethanol	Distilled Water	Stock	In 1 ml Stock
PCP 20mg	1 ml	14 ml	15ml	1.33mg
2,4-D 40mg	-	10 ml	10 ml	4 mg
Solvent Control	1 ml	14ml	15ml	0.71ml

- iv Duration 12, 24, 48 and 96h
- v Type of treatment Intraperitoneal (i.p. injection)

E. Experimental Design

A lot of 120 mice were divided into four experimental groups. Exposed groups consisted of 72 mice in all, 36 each for PCP and 2,4-D. Twelve mice were used for each concentration @ 3 mice per duration in each chemical.

The control groups consisted of normal control (tap water), solvent control (1ml ethanol/100ml DW) for PCP and simple distilled water for 2,4-D, and a separate positive control, 40mg cyclophosphamide/1000gm of body weight. Each control group included 12 mice to a total of 48 mice in all.

At the end of the specific interval, 3 mice per duration were sacrificed by cervical dislocation and immediately dissected to obtain bone marrow for various cytogenetic preparations. The explained design was followed in CA, MNT and MI studies

F. Cytogenetic Procedures:

(i) Chromosome preparation from mouse bone marrow metaphase (Tijo and Whang, 1962).

The animals were injected intraperitoneally (i.p.) with a colchicine solution (4mg/1000gm) 2h prior to tissue sampling.

They were sacrificed by cervical dislocation. Both the femurs were extracted and cleaned from muscular tissue.

The bone was cut open at distal ends, the needle was inserted with mounted syringe and the bone marrow was flushed out using 5ml of pre-incubated KCl in a centrifuge tube.

This solution was properly homogenized and kept in a water bath at 38° C for 20 min. To this 1ml of fixative was added drop by drop and the solution was left at room temperature for 20 min.

It was centrifuged for 5 min at 100g. The supernatant was discarded and the pellet was saved. To this pellet, chilled fixative was added and centrifuged again. The pellet was saved again and supernatant was discarded. The process was repeated thrice and the final pellet was saved in 2ml of chilled fixative.

The slides were pre washed with alcohol and chilled in 70 % ethanol at 0°C. The cell suspension so was dropped onto the slides from a appropriate distance. The slides then passed over the flame to burn off the fixative immediately, air dried and stained for 5 min in Giemsa (5%) in Sorensens buffer (pH 6.8).

Satisfactory slides having well separated and extended chromosomes were mounted in DPX and randomanized.

All slides including controls were coded and scored blindly by a single observer. The slides were screened for analyzable metaphases, initially under low power (45X) and subsequently at high magnification (100X,oil)

Analyzable mitotic cells were selected on the criteria: well spread metaphases with $2n=40$, or more complete number of centromere, fully aligned chromatid, no centromere splitting, no extensive overlap of chromosomes and good fixation and staining.

Chromosomal aberrations were classified as per nomenclature (Adler, 1980). The structural type of aberration was studied under two-sub types, chromatid and chromosome. Chromatid type aberrations involved one chromatid comprising chromatid gap (G), where an achromatic lesion was found with smaller than the width of one chromatid; chromatid breaks (B) having the true discontinuities with clearly dislocated fragment and translocations (T), where the fragments almost remained associated with chromosome of origin. //

Chromosomal type of aberration, involved both the chromatids of a chromosome at identical sites or loci and comprised of abnormalities like gap (G') an achromatic lesion, having non-staining region not greater than the diameter of the chromatid; break or (terminal deletion) that involved only one chromosome; chromosomal exchanges, where two or more lesions in the same or different chromosomes were observed. On the other hand, multiple aberrations (MA) comprised of rings, dicentrics and aneuploidy, where the chromosome number of a cell deviated from a multiple haploid set, 20 in the present case.

Other abnormalities like improper spreading and clumping of chromosomes were included in stickiness and pulverization, both scored separately.

(ii) Micronucleus preparation from mouse bone marrow (Schmid, 1973)

Both the femurs were extracted from the test animals and muscular tissue cleared. The bone was cut open and the bone marrow was flushed out with 5% of foetal calf serum and the solution was homogenized properly. No hypotonic

treatment was given.

The solution was kept for 5 min at room temperature and the supernatant was discarded and pellet saved. The sediment was mixed with a pipette and a small drop of cell suspension was dropped at the one end of the clean dry glass slide and evenly smeared and air dried without fixation.

The staining procedure followed a combination of May-Gruenwald and Giemsa staining in succession: the slides were first covered with undiluted May-Gruenwald solution for 3 min and replaced by diluted (1:1) solution of the same stain with distilled water for 2 min followed by staining in Giemsa for 5 min. The slides were rinsed and dried, treated with xylene and mounted in DPX.

All slides including controls were coded and scored blindly by a single observer and screened for analyzable micronucleus under the same magnification as described earlier. In well stained slides, the nuclear material was deep purple in color while the cytoplasm of nucleated cells appeared as light blue. Normochromatic erythrocyte were orange yellow in color in contrast with polychromatic erythrocytes which were pink to purple. The differential staining thus allowed the clear discrimination between polychromatic erythrocytes (PCE's) and normochromatic erythrocytes (NCE's). The right area was chosen for scoring where the erythrocytes were well separated, not folded, and clearly contoured.

(iii) Calculation of mitotic Indices (Hedge et al., 1995)

The mitotic index (MI) was calculated from a total of 2000 cells scored in each concentration category. Details regarding mathematical procedure and justification presented elsewhere in this chapter, (section B, iii).

G. Statistical Analysis:

All the scorings were done from slides under code. The percentage frequencies of chromosomal aberrations micronuclei and mitotic indices were calculated and the mean percentage and standard error for required groups computed. The data were admitted to the equality of proportion test (normal test) to find the significance of treated values over control by

$$Z = \frac{(p_1 - p_2)}{P(1 - P) \left(\frac{1}{N_1} + \frac{1}{N_2} \right)}$$

Where p_1 and p_2 are the frequencies of anomalies of the cells in control and treated; N_1 and N_2 are the number of cells studied in control and treated series and $P = (p_1 + p_2) / (N_1 + N_2)$. The results were considered significant at 5% level when $Z \geq 1.96$.

CHAPTER 1

Results
Discussion
Summary
References

RESULTS

Mutagenic effects of PCP and 2,4-D based on various parameters have been summarized in Tables 4 to 9. Dose and duration related trends of all the cytogenetic parameters have been represented graphically from Figures 1 to 8. The detailed results are discussed below.

Chromosomal aberrations, with three concentrations of Pentachlorophenol indicate that there was a clearly significant increase in aberration at 24 h interval though rising trend was evident in every concentration (Table 4); the fact also depicted in Figure 1. There was a definite decrease beyond 48 h. Table 5 show that there was a time dependent increase in C1 in 2,4-D, while concentrations C2 and C3 indicated that the injurious effect to the chromosomes was minimized at higher concentrations as durations progressed beyond 48 h (Figure 3). The effect clearly decreased with increase of time. In both test chemicals no significant increase was observed between normal and solvent control, however when contrasted with solvent control the rise was significant.

Both chemicals were able to indicate chromatid and chromosome type of aberrations, and the frequency of chromatid type of aberration was high as compared to chromosome. Also evident from statistical data was the chromatid type gaps were consistently and more frequently observed in all replicates of 2,4-D and PCP. Aberrations such as breaks, translocations, stickiness and pulverisations were also observed; a dose dependent increase in total aberrations were noted. A closer look of Figures 2 and 4 relating to PCP and 2,4-D showed an increase in stickiness and pulverisation from 12 to 24 h of treatment; followed by a decline as the time elapsed from 48 h onwards. No significant differences were observed in normal and solvent control for this class either. A maximum of 18.33 ± 0.05 frequency of aberration was recorded in PCP treated group at 24 h of C3 as compared to 15.66 ± 0.05 of 2,4-D, showing comparative effectiveness of the former. By and large, results for CA reveal that there was a concentration dependent increase and the maximal response in chromosomal aberrations occurred 24 h after treatment in concentrations used

for both the chemicals.

Tables 6 and 7 and Figures 5 and 6 which are based on these tables, presented the results of micronucleus formation. In all three dose levels the frequency of micronuclei in polychromatic erythrocytes (PCEs) induced by PCP found elevated and consistently above the control levels; a maximum of 1.08 ± 0.003 was recorded at 24 h of C3 to that of normal 0.48 ± 0.50 , whereas a maximum of 1.15 ± 0.003 was recorded against 2,4-D. There was a concentration and dose dependent increase in the formation of micronucleated polychromatic erythrocytes (MNPCEs) and the maximum rise in MNPCEs were seen at 24 h of the treatment for either chemical. The P / N Ratio showed no significant change for these chemicals, or the percentage of polychromatic cells. The frequency of PCP induced MNPCEs increased with time and reached at maximum level 24 h after treatment followed by a gradual decrease, however, it was statistically insignificant.

The third parameter chosen was mitotic index(MI) study. It showed a dose and time dependent inhibition in case of PCP and 2,4-D respectively (Figures 7 and 8). A minimum value of 3.01 ± 0.11 was observed for PCP and 3.05 ± 0.12 for 2,4-D. These values in normal was 3.90 ± 0.11 (Table 9). In case of PCP, maximum decrease in mitotic index was seen at 96 h of C3 concentration. A steep decline was recorded as the concentration increased. Both chemicals showed the same trend in mitotic indices as concentration and time increases. Some of the representative chromosomal aberrations and micronucleus formation have been shown in Fig 9 and 10.

Table 4: Chromosomal Aberrations induced by multiple concentrations of Pentachlorophenol (PCP) at different intervals in *Mus musculus*

Duration (h)	Concentration mg/1000g	Aberration Chromatid			Chromosomal			% Aberration \pm SE			% Total Aberration \pm SE	% S & P \pm SE	
		G	B	MA	G'	B'	T	+Gap	-Gap	+ Gap			- Gap
12	NC	8	3	4	4	3	3	5.00 \pm 0.36	2.33 \pm 0.11	3.33 \pm 0.20	2.00 \pm 0.09	8.33 \pm 0.04	2.33 \pm 0.11
	SC	3	4	11	5	3	4	6.00 \pm 0.03	5.00 \pm 0.03	4.00 \pm 0.03	2.33 \pm 0.02	10.00 \pm 0.04	2.66 \pm 0.02
	PC	8	15	10	9	6	10	11.00 \pm 0.04	8.33 \pm 0.03	8.33 \pm 0.03	5.33 \pm 0.03	17.66 \pm 0.05*	9.33 \pm 0.03
	C1	9	4	4	5	3	4	5.66 \pm 0.03	2.66 \pm 0.02	4.00 \pm 0.03	2.33 \pm 0.02	9.06 \pm 0.04	2.33 \pm 0.02
	C2	11	4	5	4	2	4	6.33 \pm 0.03	2.66 \pm 0.02	2.33 \pm 0.02	3.66 \pm 0.02	10.00 \pm 0.04	2.66 \pm 0.02
	C3	13	5	7	6	3	5	8.33 \pm 0.03	4.00 \pm 0.02	2.66 \pm 0.02	4.66 \pm 0.03	13.00 \pm 0.04	2.66 \pm 0.02
24	NC	8	3	5	4	2	4	5.33 \pm 0.04	2.66 \pm 0.14	3.33 \pm 0.20	2.00 \pm 0.09	8.66 \pm 0.04	2.33 \pm 0.11
	SC	3	4	10	3	3	4	5.66 \pm 0.03	4.66 \pm 0.02	3.66 \pm 0.02	2.66 \pm 0.02	9.00 \pm 0.04	2.66 \pm 0.02
	PC	4	17	15	10	10	18	12.00 \pm 0.03	10.66 \pm 0.04	12.66 \pm 0.04	9.33 \pm 0.02	24.66 \pm 0.04*	10.00 \pm 0.03
	C1	12	9	8	9	4	5	9.66 \pm 0.04	5.66 \pm 0.03	6.33 \pm 0.03	3.00 \pm 0.02	16.00 \pm 0.05*	4.00 \pm 0.02
	C2	14	9	12	9	4	4	11.66 \pm 0.04	7.00 \pm 0.03	5.66 \pm 0.03	2.66 \pm 0.02	17.33 \pm 0.05*	4.33 \pm 0.02
	C3	14	10	13	10	4	4	12.33 \pm 0.04	7.66 \pm 0.03	6.00 \pm 0.03	2.66 \pm 0.02	18.33 \pm 0.05*	4.66 \pm 0.03
48	NC	8	3	4	6	3	5	5.00 \pm 0.36	2.33 \pm 0.11	4.33 \pm 0.02	2.33 \pm 0.11	9.66 \pm 0.04	2.33 \pm 0.11
	SC	5	5	7	4	3	7	5.66 \pm 0.03	4.00 \pm 0.02	3.33 \pm 0.02	2.33 \pm 0.02	10.33 \pm 0.04	2.33 \pm 0.11
	PC	6	17	10	13	9	11	11.00 \pm 0.04	9.00 \pm 0.03	11.00 \pm 0.13	6.66 \pm 0.03	22.00 \pm 0.05*	12.66 \pm 0.04
	C1	11	4	4	8	2	4	6.33 \pm 0.03	2.66 \pm 0.02	4.66 \pm 0.02	2.00 \pm 0.03	11.00 \pm 0.04	2.33 \pm 0.02
	C2	6	4	6	10	2	3	5.33 \pm 0.03	3.33 \pm 0.02	5.00 \pm 0.03	1.66 \pm 0.02	10.33 \pm 0.04	4.11 \pm 0.02
	C3	10	4	3	4	3	17	11.66 \pm 0.03	7.00 \pm 0.03	5.66 \pm 0.03	2.66 \pm 0.03	17.33 \pm 0.05*	4.00 \pm 0.02
96	NC	7	3	5	4	3	3	4.66 \pm 0.36	2.33 \pm 0.11	3.33 \pm 0.20	2.00 \pm 0.29	8.33 \pm 0.04	2.00 \pm 0.09
	SC	2	5	8	2	3	6	5.00 \pm 0.03	4.33 \pm 0.02	3.66 \pm 0.02	3.00 \pm 0.02	8.66 \pm 0.04	2.33 \pm 0.02
	PC	9	12	18	8	9	12	13.00 \pm 0.04	10.00 \pm 0.03	9.66 \pm 0.03	7.00 \pm 0.03	22.66 \pm 0.05*	10.33 \pm 0.28
	C1	12	3	3	7	3	5	6.00 \pm 0.03	2.00 \pm 0.02	5.00 \pm 0.03	2.66 \pm 0.02	11.00 \pm 0.04	2.33 \pm 0.02
	C2	2	5	13	2	5	6	6.66 \pm 0.03	6.00 \pm 0.03	4.00 \pm 0.03	3.33 \pm 0.02	11.00 \pm 0.04	4.00 \pm 0.02
	C3	9	4	5	5	4	4	6.00 \pm 0.03	3.00 \pm 0.02	4.33 \pm 0.03	2.66 \pm 0.02	10.33 \pm 0.04	2.33 \pm 0.02

NC, Normal Control, Tap Water; SC, Solvent Control, Ethanol; PC, Positive Control, Cyclophosphamide 40mg / 1000g; C1, 7mg / 1000g; C2, 15mg / 1000g; C3, 20mg / 1000g; G, Gap; B, Break; MA, T S&P, multiple aberration, translocation and stickiness & pulverization; * Significant

Figure. 1: Multiple concentration and duration related profiles of Chromosomal Aberration (CA) by Pentachlorophenol (PCP) in *Mus musculus*

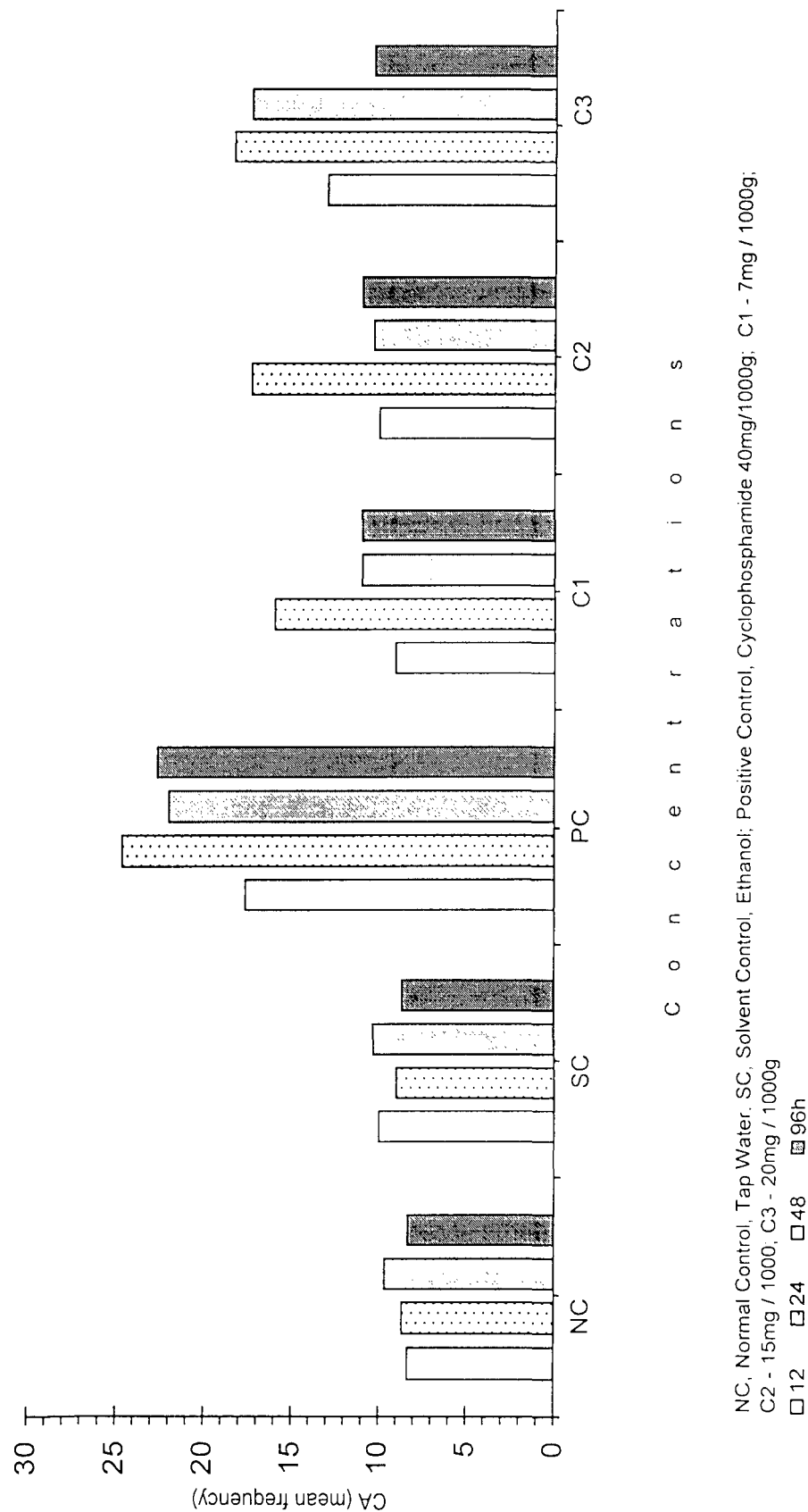
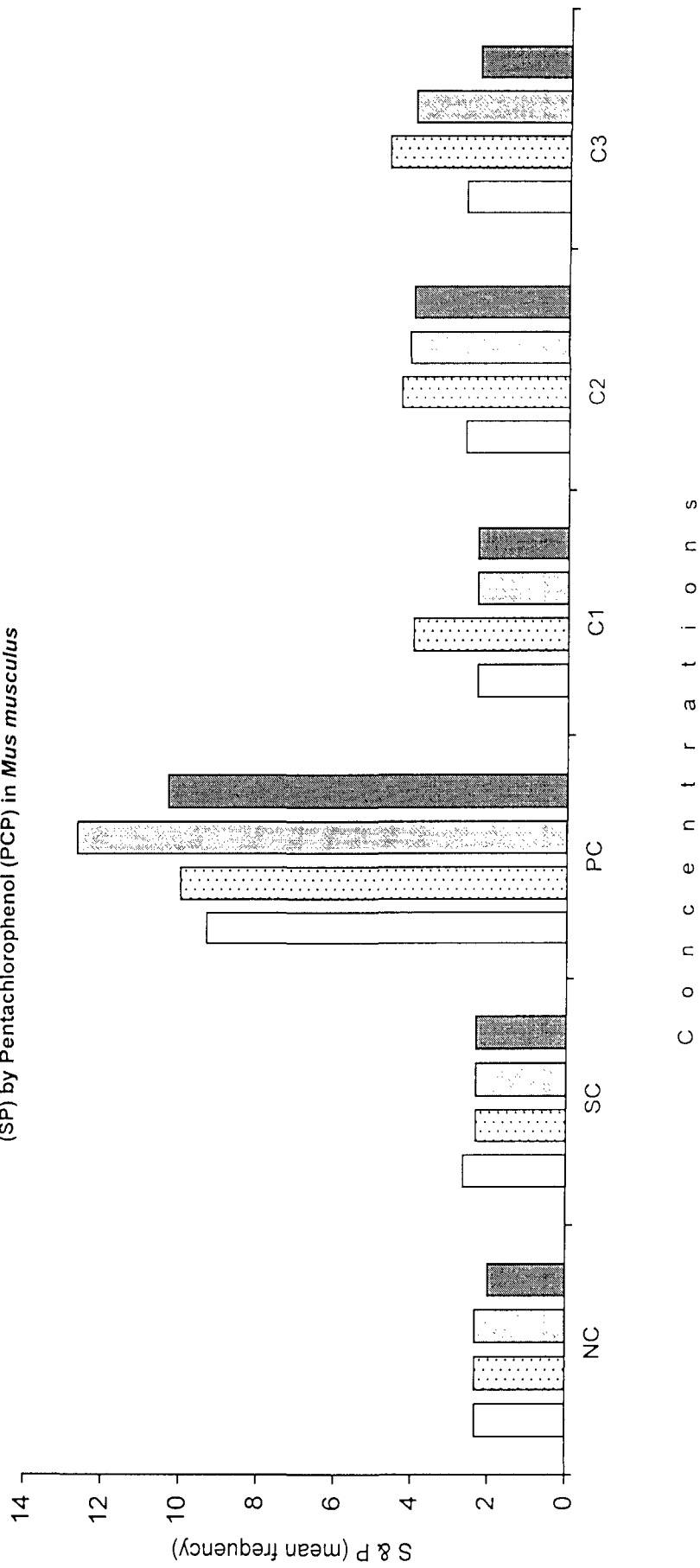


Fig. 2: Multiple Concentration and duration dependent profiles of Stickiness and pulverisation (SP) by Pentachlorophenol (PCP) in *Mus musculus*



NC, Normal Control, Tap Water; SC, Solvent Control, Ethanol; Positive Control, Cyclophosphamide 40mg/1000g; C1 - 7mg / 1000g; C2 - 15mg / 1000; C3 - 20mg / 1000g

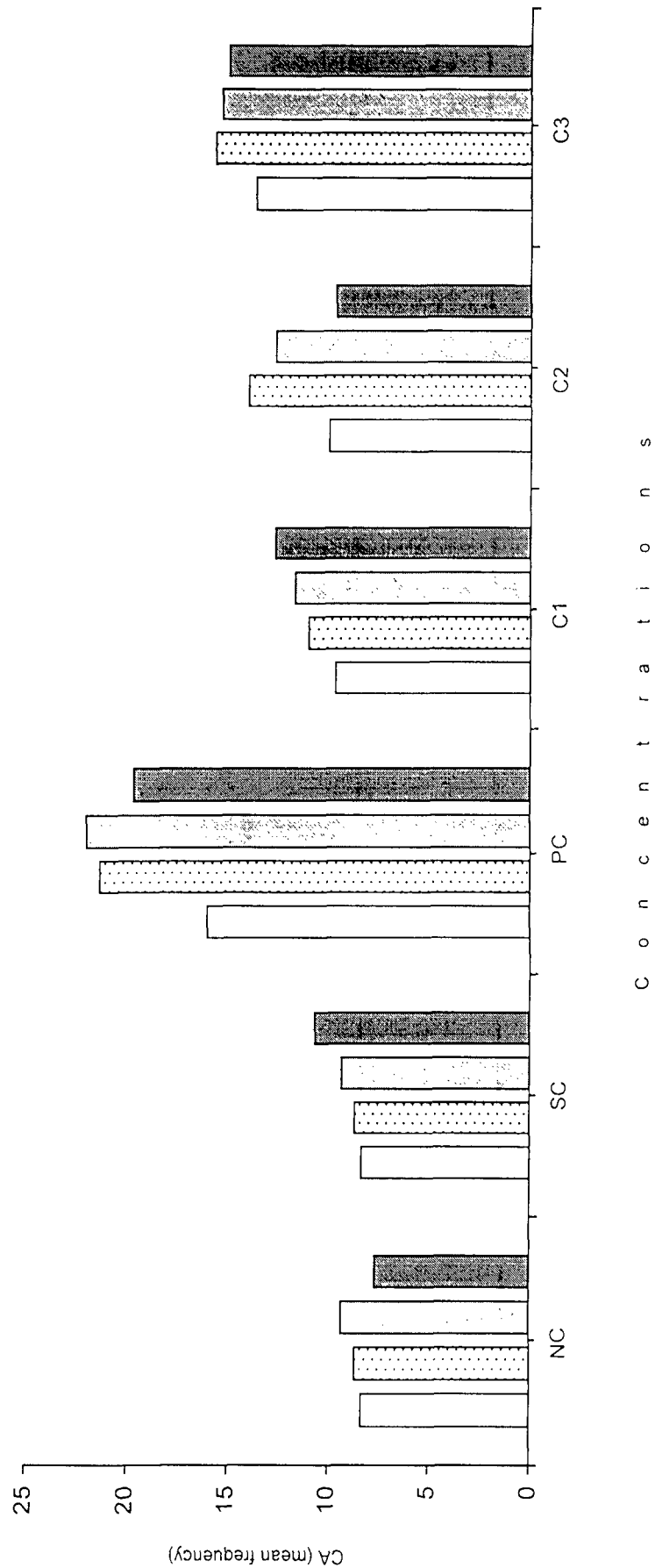
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Table 5: Chromosomal Aberration Induced by multiple concentration of 2,4-Dichlorophenoxyacetic acid (2,4-D) at different intervals in *Mus musculus*

Duration (h)	Concentration mg/1000g	Aberration			% Aberration \pm SE				% Total Aberration \pm SE	% S & P \pm SE			
		Chromatid G B MA	Choromosomal G' B' T		Chromatid		Chromosome						
		G	B	MA	G'	B'	T	+Gap	-Gap	+Gap	-Gap		
12	NC	8	3	4	4	2	4	5.00 \pm 0.36	2.33 \pm 0.11	3.33 \pm 0.20	2.00 \pm 0.09	8.33 \pm 0.04	2.33 \pm 0.11
	SC	4	4	8	4	2	3	5.33 \pm 0.03	4.00 \pm 0.02	3.66 \pm 0.02	1.66 \pm 0.02	8.33 \pm 0.04	4.00 \pm 0.02
	PC	8	5	0	9	6	10	11.00 \pm 0.04	8.33 \pm 0.03	8.33 \pm 0.03	5.33 \pm 0.03	16.00 \pm 0.05*	9.33 \pm 0.03
	C1	11	3	5	4	2	4	6.33 \pm 0.04	2.33 \pm 0.02	3.00 \pm 0.02	2.00 \pm 0.02	9.66 \pm 0.04	2.66 \pm 0.02
	C2	22	3	4	3	3	3	3.00 \pm 0.03	6.33 \pm 0.02	2.66 \pm 0.03	4.33 \pm 0.02	10.00 \pm 0.04	3.00 \pm 0.02
	C3	10	4	5	5	4	4	9.66 \pm 0.04	2.33 \pm 0.02	3.00 \pm 0.02	2.00 \pm 0.02	13.66 \pm 0.04	3.33 \pm 0.02
24	NC	8	3	5	4	2	4	5.33 \pm 0.40	2.66 \pm 0.14	3.33 \pm 0.20	2.00 \pm 0.09	8.66 \pm 0.04	3.33 \pm 0.11
	SC	6	4	8	4	3	4	6.00 \pm 0.03	4.00 \pm 0.02	3.66 \pm 0.02	2.33 \pm 0.02	8.66 \pm 0.04	3.00 \pm 0.02
	PC	4	5	17	10	14	14	12.00 \pm 0.03	10.66 \pm 0.04	12.66 \pm 0.04	9.33 \pm 0.02	21.33 \pm 0.05*	13.33 \pm 0.03
	C1	13	3	6	4	2	5	7.03 \pm 0.03	3.00 \pm 0.02	3.33 \pm 0.02	2.33 \pm 0.02	11.00 \pm 0.04	3.33 \pm 0.02
	C2	11	8	16	5	3	4	8.00 \pm 0.03	4.66 \pm 0.03	6.00 \pm 0.03	3.33 \pm 0.02	14.00 \pm 0.05*	3.66 \pm 0.02
	C3	10	8	6	8	4	6	11.60 \pm 0.04	8.00 \pm 0.03	4.00 \pm 0.03	2.33 \pm 0.02	15.66 \pm 0.05*	4.00 \pm 0.02
48	NC	8	4	3	6	2	5	5.00 \pm 0.36	2.33 \pm 0.11	2.33 \pm 0.20	4.33 \pm 0.29	9.33 \pm 0.04	3.00 \pm 0.11
	SC	3	6	6	4	3	5	5.00 \pm 0.03	4.00 \pm 0.02	4.00 \pm 0.03	2.66 \pm 0.02	9.33 \pm 0.04	3.00 \pm 0.28
	PC	6	16	11	13	9	11	11.00 \pm 0.04	9.00 \pm 0.03	1.00 \pm 0.13	6.66 \pm 0.03	22.00 \pm 0.05*	12.60 \pm 0.04
	C1	12	4	5	3	3	8	7.00 \pm 0.03	3.02 \pm 0.02	5.00 \pm 0.03	3.66 \pm 0.27	11.66 \pm 0.04	2.66 \pm 0.02
	C2	3	5	14	2	4	10	7.33 \pm 0.03	6.33 \pm 0.03	4.66 \pm 0.03	3.66 \pm 0.02	12.66 \pm 0.04	2.66 \pm 0.03
	C3	15	6	9	9	5	2	10.00 \pm 0.04	5.00 \pm 0.03	5.33 \pm 0.03	2.33 \pm 0.02	15.33 \pm 0.05*	2.00 \pm 0.02
96	NC	7	4	2	4	2	4	4.66 \pm 0.36	2.33 \pm 0.11	3.33 \pm 0.20	2.00 \pm 0.29	7.66 \pm 0.04	2.66 \pm 0.09
	SC	9	5	4	6	3	5	6.33 \pm 0.03	3.33 \pm 0.02	4.66 \pm 0.33	2.66 \pm 0.02	10.66 \pm 0.04	2.66 \pm 0.28
	PC	9	16	4	9	9	12	13.00 \pm 0.04	10.00 \pm 0.03	9.66 \pm 0.03	7.00 \pm 0.03	19.66 \pm 0.05*	10.00 \pm 0.04
	C1	18	5	5	3	3	4	6.00 \pm 0.03	3.33 \pm 0.02	3.33 \pm 0.02	2.33 \pm 0.02	12.66 \pm 0.04	2.66 \pm 0.02
	C2	13	8	12	4	3	5	5.66 \pm 0.03	3.00 \pm 0.02	4.00 \pm 0.03	3.66 \pm 0.26	9.66 \pm 0.04	2.66 \pm 0.04
	C3	8	6	3	1	2	9	11.04 \pm 0.03	6.66 \pm 0.03	4.00 \pm 0.03	2.66 \pm 0.02	15.00 \pm 0.05*	2.00 \pm 0.02

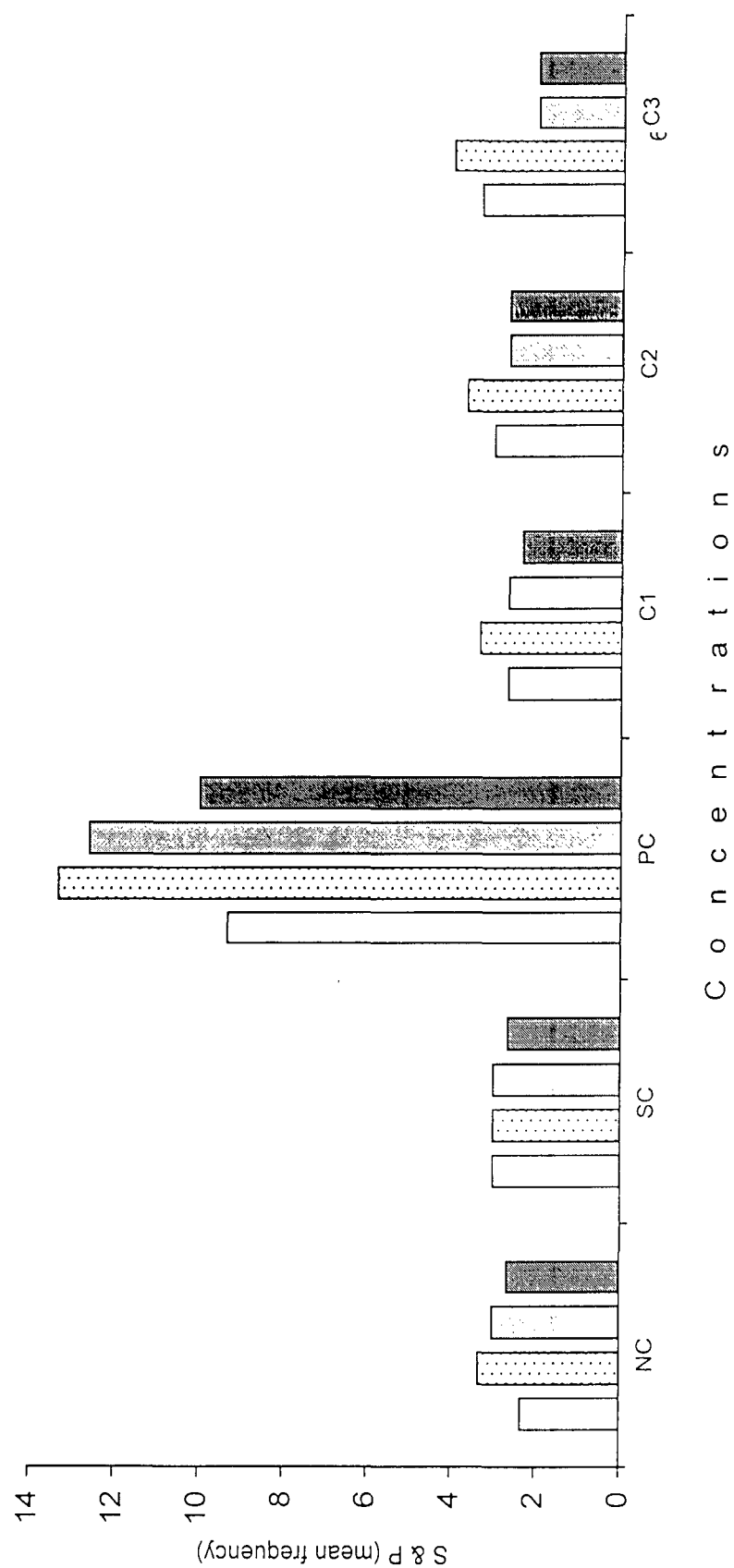
NC, Normal Control, Tap Water; SC, Solvent Control, Distilled Water; PC, Positive Control, Cyclophosphamide 40mg / 1000g; C1, 25mg / 1000g; C2, 50mg / 1000g; C3, 75mg / 1000g; G, G', Gap; B, B', break MA, T S&P, multiple aberration, translocation and stickness & pulverization.* Significant

Figure. 3: Multiple concentration and duration dependent profiles of Chromosomal Aberration (CA) by 2, 4 Dichlorophenoxyacetic acid (2, 4-D) in *Mus musculus*



NC, Normal Control, Tap Water; SC, Solvent Control, Distilled Water; Positive Control, Cyclophosphamide 40mg/1000g; C1 - 25mg / 1000g; C2 - 50mg / 1000; C3 - 75mg / 1000g
□ 12 □ 24 □ 48 ■ 96h

Figure. 4: Multiple Concentration and duration dependent profiles of Stickness and pulverisation (SP) by 2, 4 Dichlorophenoxyacetic Acid (2, 4-D) in *Mus musculus*



NC, Normal Control, Tap Water; SC, Solvent Control, Distilled Water; Positive Control, Cyclophosphamide 40 mg/1000g; C1 - 25mg / 1000g; C2 - 50mg / 1000; C3 - 75mg / 1000g.

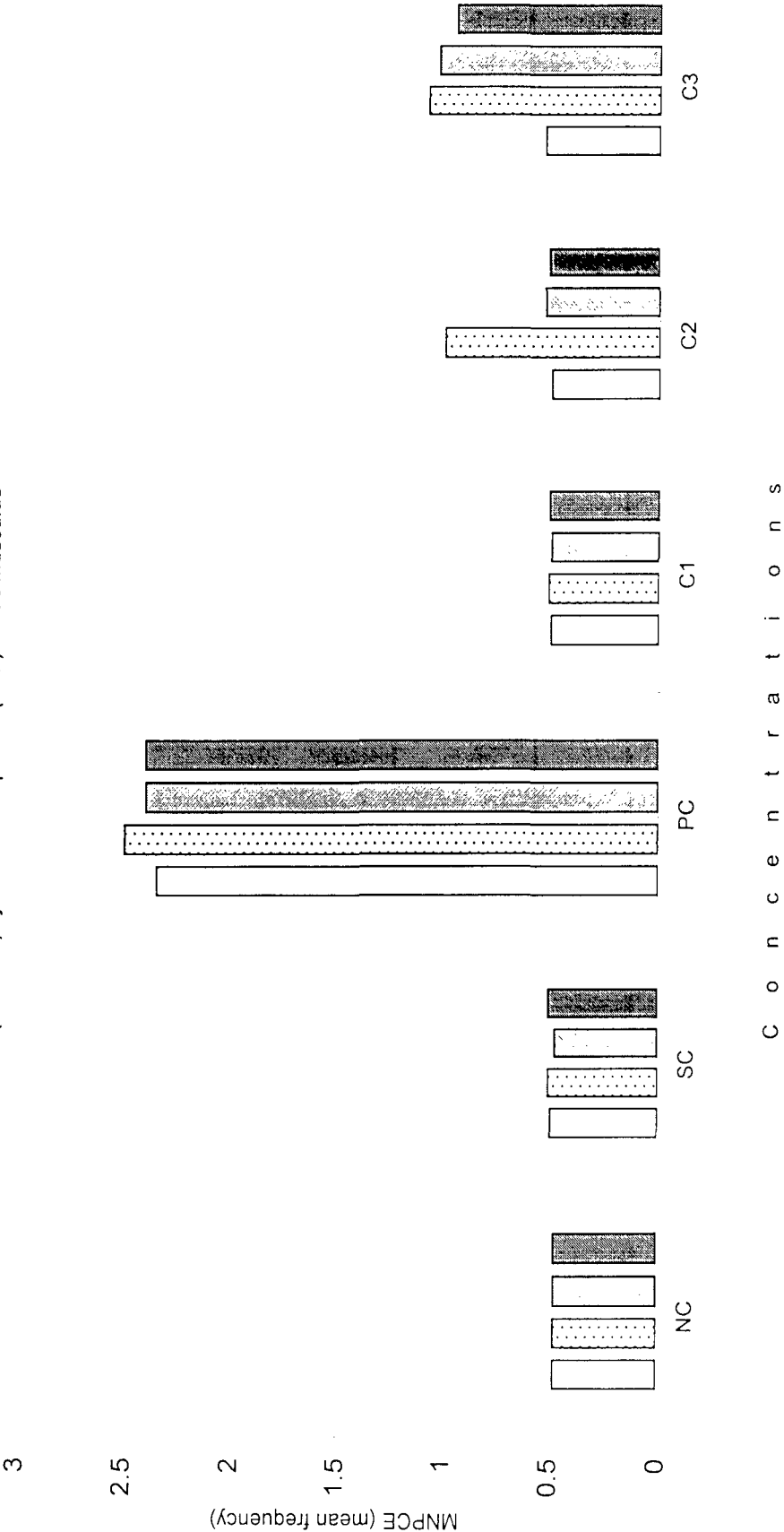
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Table 6 : Incidence of micronucleus formation in Polychromatic erythrocytes (PCE) at multiple concentrations of Pentachlorophenol (PCP) at different time intervals in *Mus musculus*

Duration h	Concentration mg/1000g	% PCE	% NCE	% MN in PCE \pm SEM	% MN in NCE \pm SEM	P/N ratio
12	NC	51.01	48.98	0.48 \pm 0.500	0.17 \pm 0.010	1.04
	SC	50.45	49.57	0.50 \pm 0.002	0.16 \pm 0.001	1.01
	PC	52.48	47.51	2.35 \pm 0.004*	0.68 \pm 0.002	1.00
	C1	50.84	49.15	0.50 \pm 0.002	0.17 \pm 0.001	1.03
	C2	50.89	49.1	0.50 \pm 0.002	0.19 \pm 0.001	1.03
	C3	51.93	48.18	0.53 \pm 0.002	0.21 \pm 0.001	1.08
24	NC	51.01	48.98	0.48 \pm 0.500	0.17 \pm 0.010	1.04
	SC	50.45	49.54	0.51 \pm 0.002	0.15 \pm 0.001	1.01
	PC	50.07	49.92	2.50 \pm 0.004*	0.66 \pm 0.002	1.01
	C1	50.85	49.14	0.51 \pm 0.002	0.18 \pm 0.001	1.03
	C2	50.76	49.23	1.00 \pm 0.003*	0.17 \pm 0.001	1.03
	C3	50.46	49.53	1.08 \pm 0.003*	0.23 \pm 0.001	1.01
48	NC	51.01	48.98	0.48 \pm 0.500	0.17 \pm 0.100	1.04
	SC	50.43	49.56	0.48 \pm 0.002	0.18 \pm 0.001	1.01
	PC	52.96	47.03	2.40 \pm 0.004*	0.67 \pm 0.002	1.12
	C1	51.63	48.74	0.50 \pm 0.002	0.17 \pm 0.001	1.06
	C2	51.24	48.75	0.53 \pm 0.002	0.21 \pm 0.001	1.05
	C3	51.01	46.59	1.03 \pm 0.003*	0.20 \pm 0.001	1.04
96	NC	51.01	48.98	0.48 \pm 0.500	0.17 \pm 0.010	1.04
	SC	50.43	48.71	0.51 \pm 0.002	0.18 \pm 0.001	1.03
	PC	51.01	48.99	2.40 \pm 0.004*	0.66 \pm 0.002	1.04
	C1	52.03	47.96	0.51 \pm 0.002	0.16 \pm 0.001	1.08
	C2	51.58	48.41	0.50 \pm 0.002	0.17 \pm 0.001	1.06
	C3	53.00	46.55	0.95 \pm 0.003*	0.20 \pm 0.001	1.12

NC, Normal Control, Tap Water; SC, Solvent Control, Ethanol; PC, Positive Control, Cyclophosphamide 40mg / 1000g; C1, 7mg / 1000g; C2, 15mg / 1000g; C3, 20mg / 1000g; PCE, Polychromatic Erythrocytes; NCE, Normochromatic Erythrocytes; SEM, Standard Error Mean

Figure. 5: Dose-duration dependent profiles of Micronucleated Polychromatic Erythrocytes (MNPCEs) by Pentachlorophenol (PCP)in *Mus musculus*



NC, Normal Control, Tap Water; SC, Solvent Control, Ethanol; Positive Control, Cyclophosphamide 40mg/1000g; C1 - 7mg / 1000g;
C2 - 15mg / 1000; C3 - 20mg / 1000g
□ 12 □ 24 □ 48 ■ 96h

Table 7: Micronucleus formation in Polychromatic erythrocytes (PCE) at multiple concentrations of 2, 4-Dichlorophenoxyacetic Acid (2, 4-D) at different time intervals in *Mus musculus*

Duration h	Concentration mg/1000g	% PCE	% NCE	% MN in PCE \pm SEM	% MN in NCE \pm SEM	P/N ratio
12	NC	51.01	48.98	0.48 \pm 0.500	0.17 \pm 0.010	1.04
	SC	51.43	46.56	0.48 \pm 0.002	0.18 \pm 0.001	1.01
	PC	52.48	47.51	2.35 \pm 0.004*	0.68 \pm 0.002	1.10
	C1	51.29	48.70	0.51 \pm 0.002	0.19 \pm 0.001	1.05
	C2	52.26	47.73	0.53 \pm 0.002	0.21 \pm 0.001	1.09
	C3	50.43	49.53	0.70 \pm 0.002	0.27 \pm 0.001	1.01
24	NC	51.01	48.98	0.48 \pm 0.500	0.17 \pm 0.010	1.04
	SC	50.45	49.57	0.50 \pm 0.002	0.16 \pm 0.001	1.01
	PC	50.07	49.92	2.50 \pm 0.004*	0.66 \pm 0.002	1.01
	C1	50.97	49.02	0.53 \pm 0.002	0.21 \pm 0.001	1.03
	C2	50.05	49.94	0.93 \pm 0.003*	0.20 \pm 0.001	1.00
	C3	50.11	49.88	1.15 \pm 0.003*	0.25 \pm 0.001	1.00
48	NC	51.01	48.98	0.48 \pm 0.500	0.17 \pm 0.010	1.04
	SC	50.45	49.54	0.51 \pm 0.002	0.15 \pm 0.001	1.01
	PC	52.96	47.03	2.40 \pm 0.004*	0.67 \pm 0.002	1.12
	C1	50.17	47.82	0.51 \pm 0.002	0.21 \pm 0.001	1.09
	C2	50.16	49.83	0.63 \pm 0.002	0.23 \pm 0.001	1.00
	C3	50.66	48.33	0.96 \pm 0.003*	0.27 \pm 0.001	1.02
96	NC	51.01	48.98	0.48 \pm 0.500	0.17 \pm 0.010	1.04
	SC	50.45	49.54	0.50 \pm 0.002	0.16 \pm 0.001	1.01
	PC	51.01	48.99	2.40 \pm 0.004*	0.66 \pm 0.001	1.04
	C1	52.07	46.18	0.50 \pm 0.002	0.19 \pm 0.001	1.15
	C2	51.18	48.81	0.56 \pm 0.002	0.22 \pm 0.001	1.04
	C3	52.81	47.18	0.95 \pm 0.003*	0.24 \pm 0.001	1.11

NC, Normal Control; Tap Water; SC, Solvent Control; Ethanol; PC, Positive Control; Cyclophosphamide 40mg / 1000g; C1, 25mg / 1000g; C2, 50mg / 1000g; C3, 75mg / 1000g; PCE, Polychromatic Erythrocytes; NCE, Normochromatic Erythrocytes. SEM Standard Error Mean; *Significant.

Figure. 6 : Dose-duration dependent profiles of Micronucleated Polychromatic Erythrocytes (MNPCEs) by 2, 4 Dichlorophenoxyacetic acid (2, 4-D) in *Mus musculus*

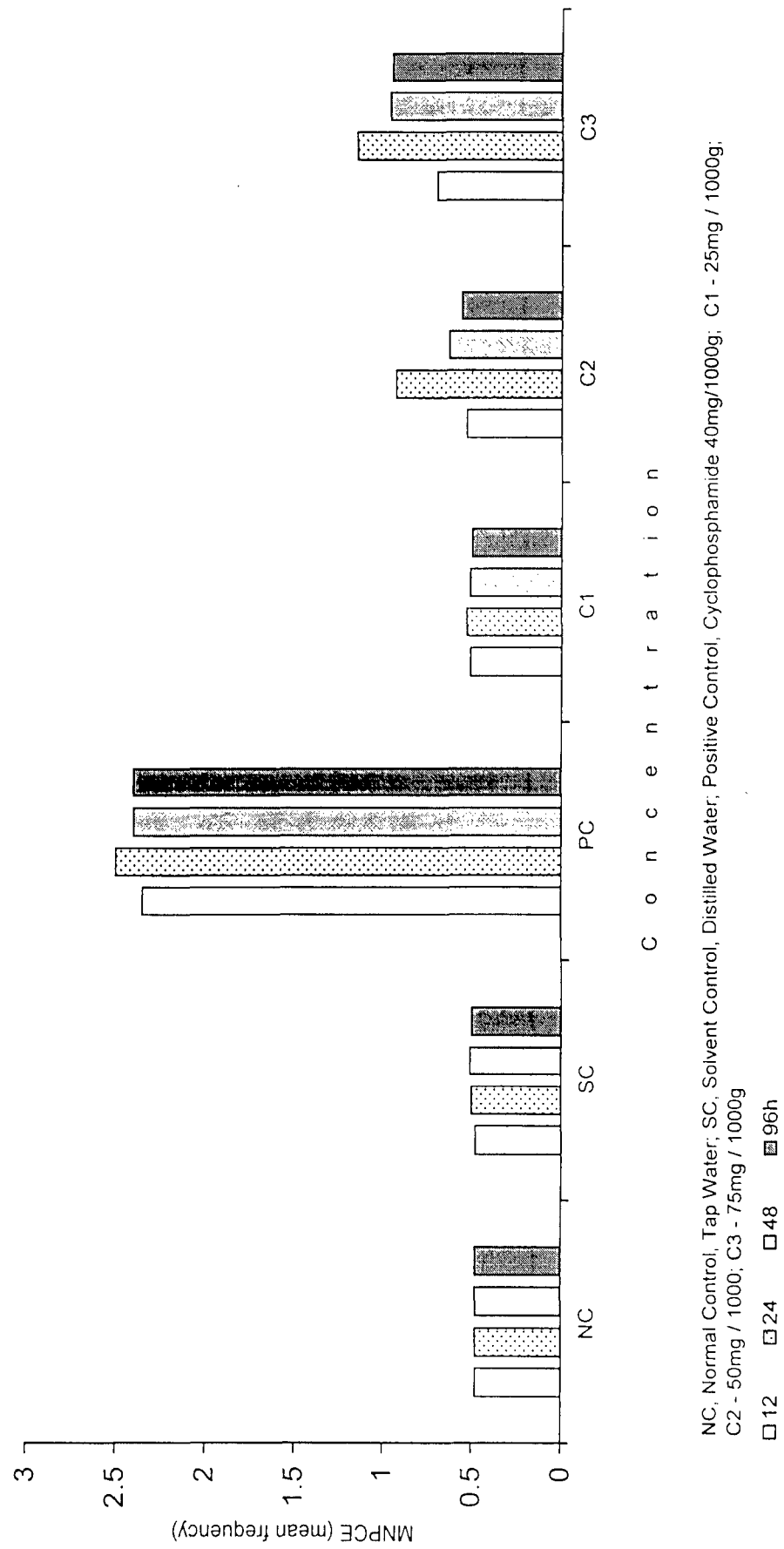
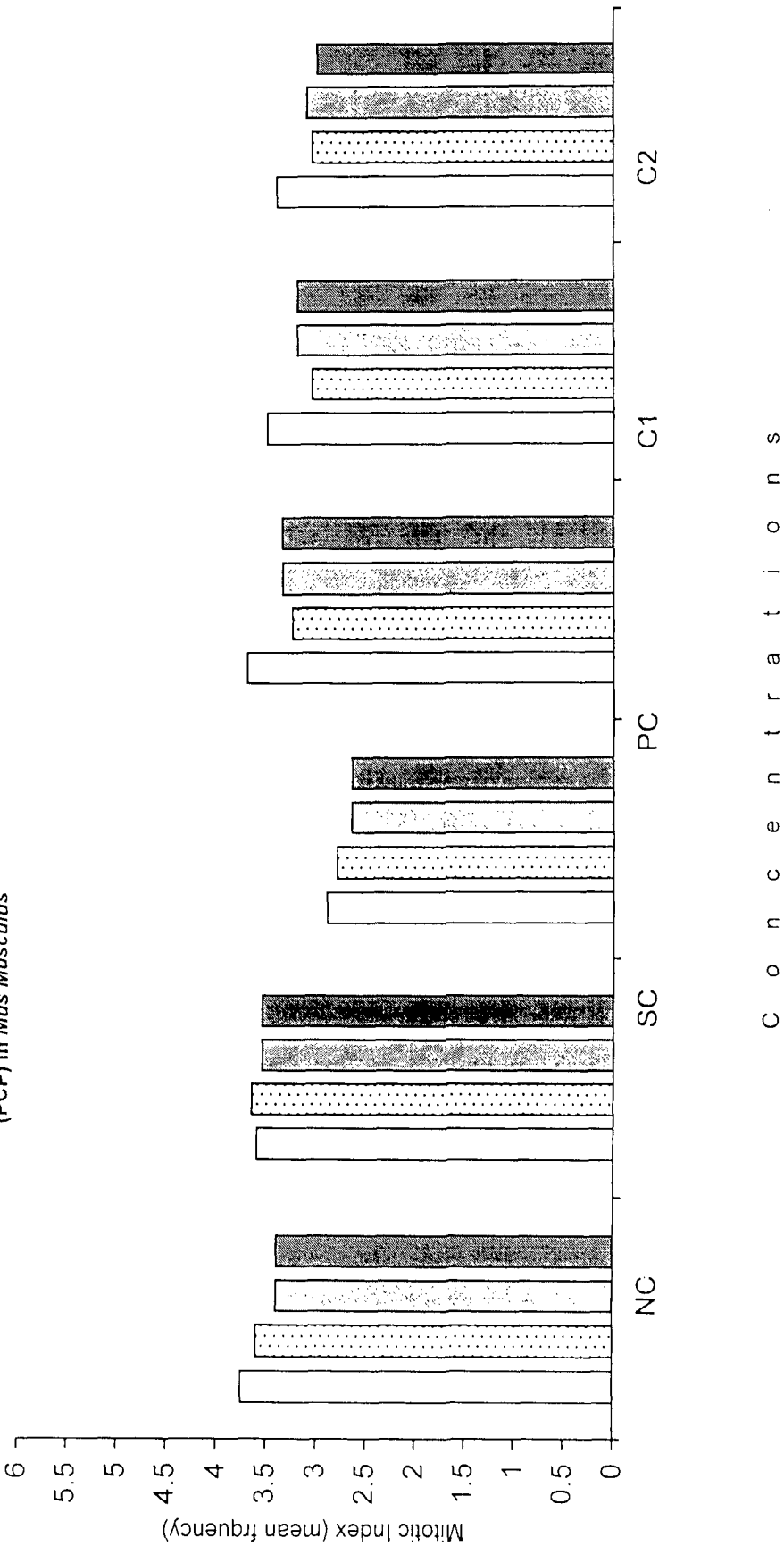


Table 8: Mitotic Indices in response to various concentrations of Pentachlorophenol (PCP) at different time intervals in *Mus musculus*

Concentration mg/1000g	12h	24h	48h	96h
NC	3.75±0.11	3.60±0.11	3.60±0.11	3.50±0.11
SC	3.60±0.11	3.65±0.11	3.55±0.11	3.55±0.11
PC	2.90±0.11	2.80±0.11	2.65±0.11	2.65±0.11
C1	3.70±0.11	3.45±0.11	3.35±0.11	3.25±0.11
C2	3.50±0.11	3.20±0.11	3.05±0.11	3.03±0.11
C3	3.40±0.11	3.10±0.11	3.05±0.11	3.01±0.11

NC, Normal Control, Tap Water; SC, Solvent Control, Distilled Water; Positive Control, Cyclophosphamide 40 mg/1000g; C1 - 7mg / 1000g; C2 - 15mg / 1000; C3 - 20mg / 1000g

Figure 7: Multiple Concentrations and duration dependent profiles of mitotic index (MI) by Pentachlorophenol (PCP) in *Mus Musculus*

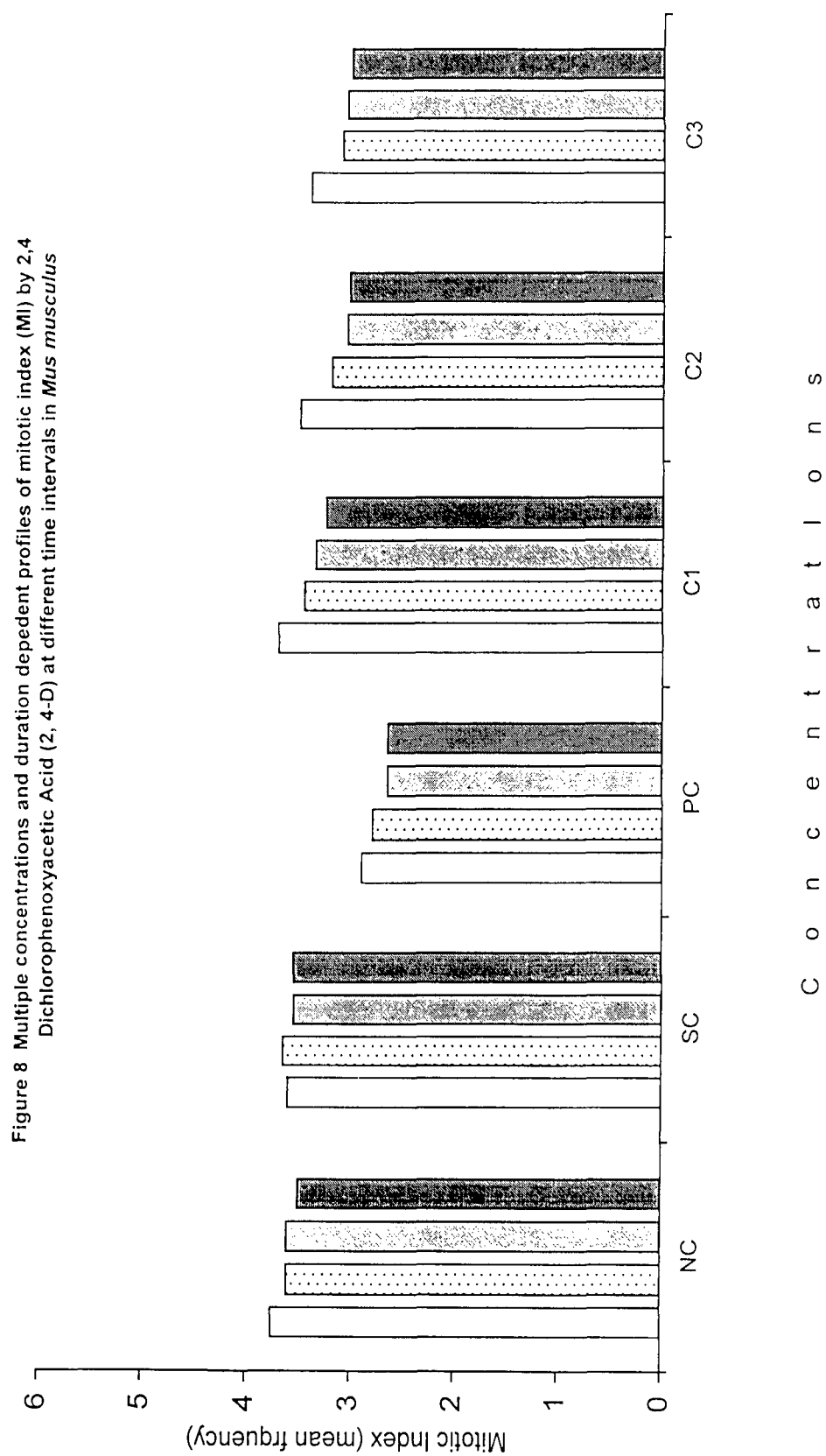


NC, Normal Control, Tap Water; SC, Solvent Control, Ethanol; Positive Control, Cyclophosphamide 40 mg/1000g; C1 - 7mg / 1000g;
C2 - 15mg / 1000; C3 - 20mg / 1000g
□ 12 □ 24 □ 48 ■ 96h

Table 9: Mitotic indices in response to various concentrations of 2,4-D at different time intervals in *Mus musculus*

Concentration mg/1000g	Mitotic Index \pm SE			
	12h	24h	48h	96h
NC	3.71 \pm 0.11	3.90 \pm 0.11	3.60 \pm 0.11	3.60 \pm 0.11
SC	3.60 \pm 0.11	3.65 \pm 0.11	3.55 \pm 0.11	3.55 \pm 0.11
PC	2.90 \pm 0.11	2.80 \pm 0.11	2.65 \pm 0.11	2.65 \pm 0.11
C1	3.70 \pm 0.11	3.70 \pm 0.11	3.60 \pm 0.11	3.50 \pm 0.11
C2	3.40 \pm 0.11	3.45 \pm 0.11	3.25 \pm 0.11	3.10 \pm 0.11
C3	3.20 \pm 0.11	3.05 \pm 0.12	3.05 \pm 0.13	3.10 \pm 0.14

NC: Normal Control, Tap Water; SC, Solvent Control, Ethanol; Positive Control, Cyclophosphamide g/1000g; C1 - 25mg / 1000g; C2 - 50mg / 1000; C3 - 75mg / 1000g



NC, Normal Control, Tap Water; SC, Solvent Control, Distilled Water; Positive Control, Cyclophosphamide mg/1000g; C1 - 25mg / 1000g; C2 - 50mg / 1000g; C3 - 75mg / 1000g
 □ 12 □ 24 □ 48 ■ 96h

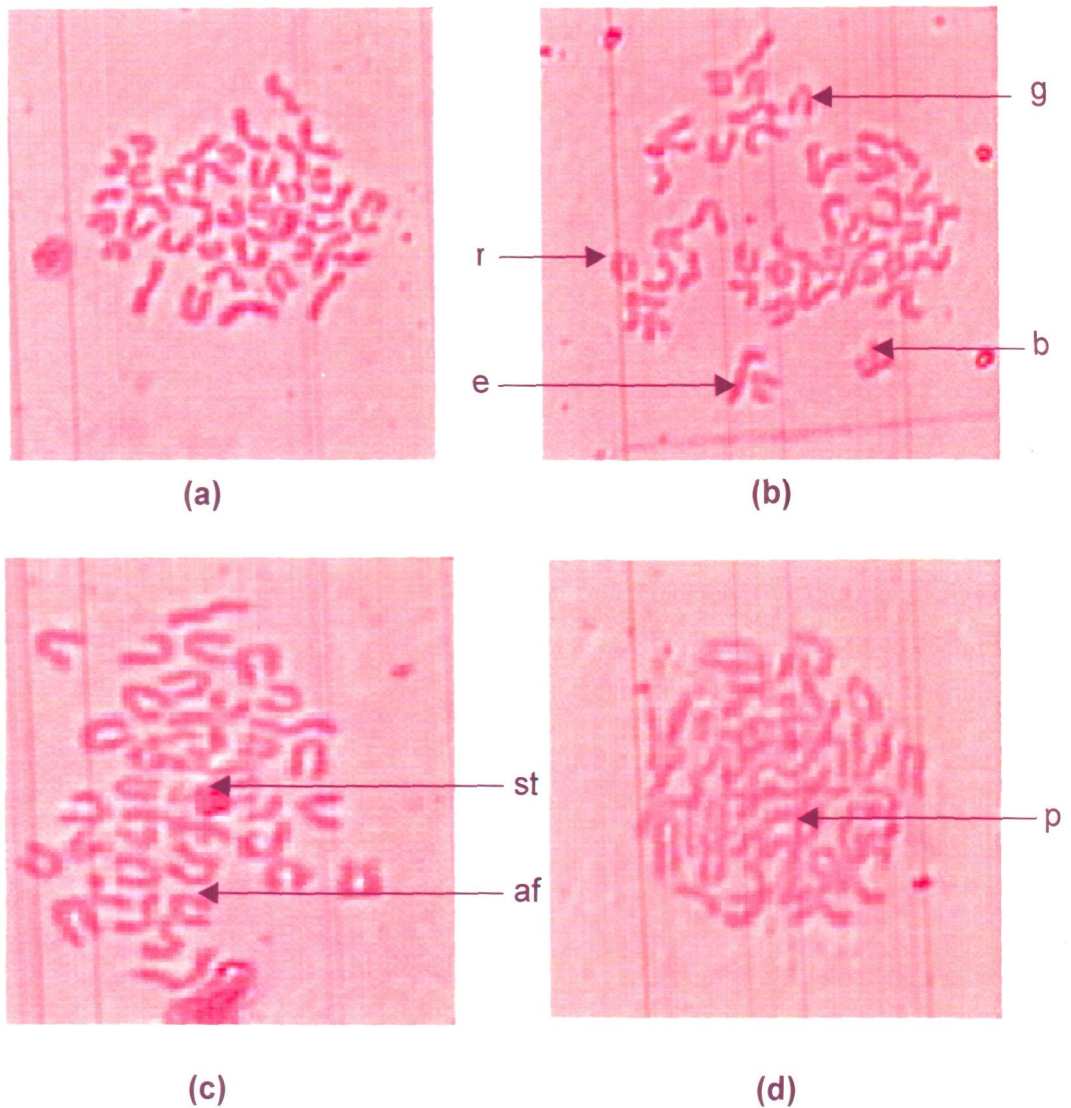


Figure 9: Representative Photomicrograph of normal karyotype (a) and chromosomal aberrations (b,c and d) observed in bone marrow cells of *Mus musculus* by PCP and 2,4-D.

g- gap, b- break, af acentric fragment, e- exchange, st- stickiness, p- pulverization r- ring chromosome

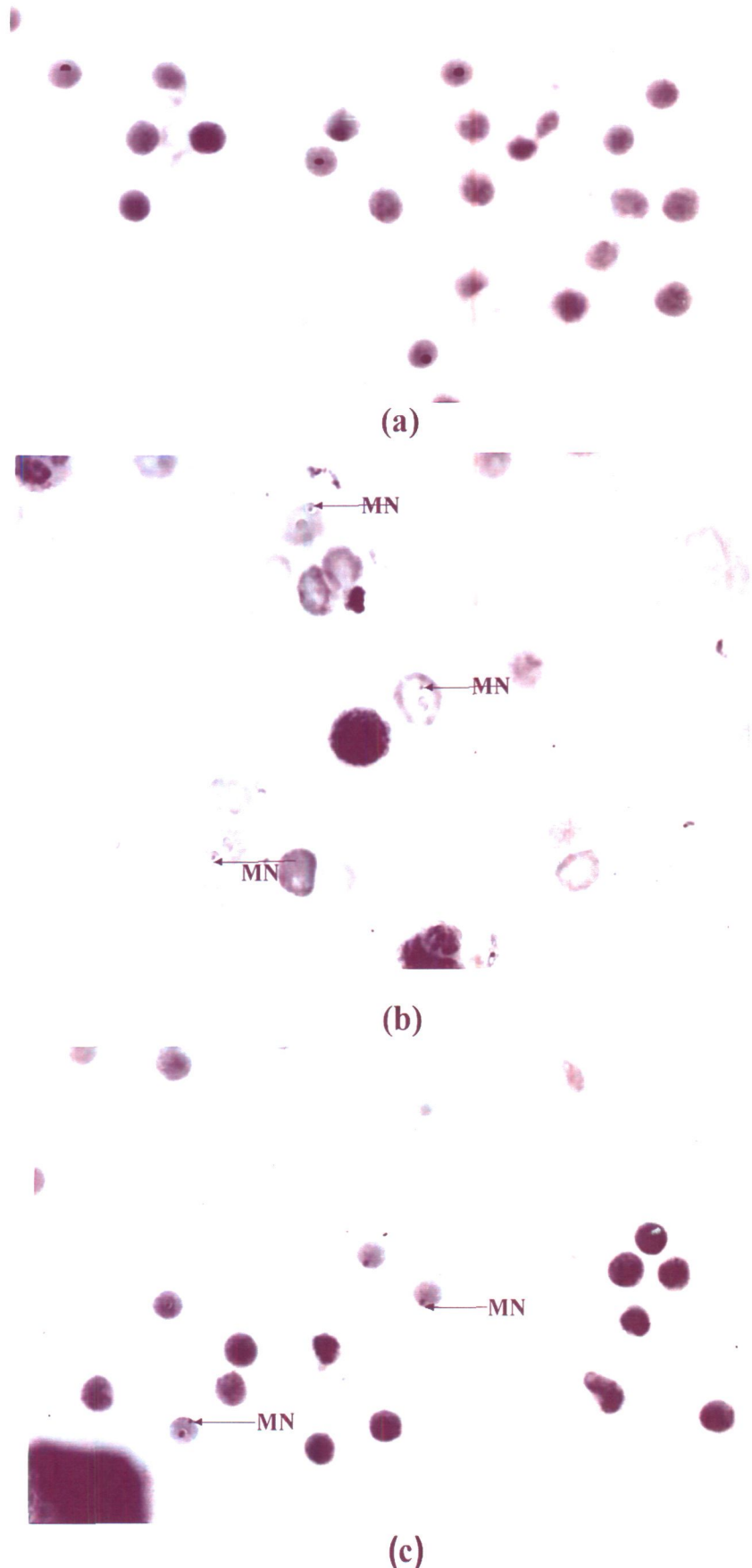


Figure10: Representative Photomicrographs of micronucleus formation in polychromatic erythrocytes in bone marrow cells of *Mus musculus* by PCP and 2,4-D.

(a) Normal

(b) MNPCs : Micronucleated polychromatic erythrocytes

(c) MNNEs : Micronucleated normochromatic erythrocytes

DISCUSSION.

Genotoxicity tests are vital on a routine basis for most categories of chemicals such as pesticides, drugs, food additives etc (Kramers et al., 1991). Out of a battery of parameters, short term tests in mammals have received much attention as a protective pre requisite to human life. The present study was conducted by three such tests; the in vivo bone marrow chromosomal assay, micronucleus assay and mitotic index study to evaluate mutagenic potential of chemicals namely PCP and 2,4-D. The induction of chromosome and chromatid type deletions, exchanges and MN in the bone marrow cells of mice observed in our experiments confirmed the clastogenic potential as well indication of as spindle poisoning action of PCP and 2,4-D. However, the P/N ratio suggested a lack of cytotoxic effect of the chemicals at the present concentrations.

There are two important factors of micronucleus formation; due to chromosome breakage and spindle inhibition (Schmid, 1976). The findings that chemicals with clastogenic activities induce micronuclei has generally been accepted as an indication of micronuclei, that are derived from chromatid or chromosome fragments or lagging chromosomes. Nevertheless, only few studies could focuss on the mechanism of micronucleus formation. Evans et al., (1959), showed that micronuclei are resulted from chromosomal aberrations induced by fast neutrons and gamma rays in the root tips of *Vicia faba*. In an in vitro study, Countryman and Heedle (1976) showed that dosimetric aspects of micronucleated cells agree with those expected from metaphase analysis of aberrations in cultured human cells. The relationship between chromosomal aberrations and micronuclei could be demonstrated only on the basis of theoretical considerations (Heedle and Carrano, 1977).

Chromatid type breaks were seen more frequently than chromosome type of breaks in the metaphase plate analysis of both the chemicals. This indicated that damage affected the DNA strands in the late S phase or after the DNA has replicated or duplicated (Bird et al., 1982). Similarly Pilocarpine-induced significant c-mitosis and chromosomal aberrations like breaks, exchanges,

stickiness and pulverization in dose dependent manner endorsed this trend. The types of breaks brought about by the present test chemicals indicate that they are active in G1 and S phase of cell cycle. Other drugs also found to inhibit DNA synthesis in peripheral blood mononuclear cells (Artz et al., 1989). The time response study, as observed in the present experiments indicate that frequency of stickiness and pulverisation increased from 12 to 24h followed by rapid decrease at 48h of the treatment. This fully agrees with the statement of Savage that stickiness is a transient phenomenon.

Various biochemical and related interpretations are given by many investigators to explain the induction of stickiness (Darlington, 1942; DeRobertis et al., 1974; Giri et al., 1981). From these different views, it is inferred that chemically induced stickiness is very complicated phenomenon involving properties of chromosomes. Chromatid breaks were seen more frequently than chromosome breaks in metaphase plate analysis, indicating damage affecting the DNA strand in its late S phase.

That the significant increase in aberration at 24h of the treatment of the chemical and the gradual decrease later on, indicate that these chemicals were active during this period. The decline in the frequencies of aberrations observed in the later time intervals could be due to various reasons like elimination of chemical or its metabolite from the body, repair of damaged genetic material, elimination of cell's chromosome with damaged genetic material, and the inactivation of the chemical or its metabolites (Shyama et al., 1991). The prevalence of endomitotic reduplication in PCP exposed bone marrow was a noteworthy observation. Endomitotic reduplication is a specialized process where doubling of genetic material have the tendency of the cells to pass from G2 to the next S phase without undergoing cell division. Microtubular spindle disturbances are considered important to this process with implication of possible aneuploidy (Dean and Danford, 1984). A variety of chemicals are known to induce endomitotic reduplication that influence replication (Sutou and Arai, 1975; Speit et al., 1987; Sognier and Hittleman, 1986; Caligo and Rainaldi, 1987; Bean et al., 1992; Gurr et al., 1933).

Anovolar 21, an oral contrareceptive which contains progestin norethisterone acetate, induces considerable stickiness in chromosomes of plants and animals (Hakeem and Amer 1965; Kabarity and Mazrooei, 1984; Shyama et al 1991). The same was corroborated by the dose of Tris-azaridinyl-phosphine-oxide (TEPA) (Adler et al., 1971) at 10mg/Kg and for MC at 0.35mg/Kg (Manyak and Schlerermacher, 1973). On the other hand, the data with trimethyphosphate (TMP) showed a plateau between 24 and 48h (Adler et al., 1971). Similarly cytocine arabinoside showed aberration maximized in bone marrow of mice at 6h after treatment (Wobus et al., 1978). The time of maximal aberration may vary from chemical to chemical; most chemical mutagens act specifically during a particular part of the cell cycle (Bender et al., 1974).

Fluchloralin, a slightly hazardous compound induced chromosome fragments, bridges, micronuclei and chromosome vagrancy (Rao et al., 1990). CA and MN assays indicated that fluchloralin at higher concentrations positively damage human genome. With high doses, the two injections recommended by standard protocols are not likely to maximize the response of micronuclei test. No treatment given less than 10h before bone marrow sampling gave a clear-cut response in micronucleus assay. Therefore, using a single treatment and different intervals best fullfills the requirements for a sensitive micronucleus test in the battery of short-term tests applied to detect chemical mutagens.

✓ The P/N ratio is an indicator of inhibition of nucleated erythropoietic cell divisions, and is recommended in some guidelines for micronucleus test (EPA, 1952; EEC, 1979; OECD, 1983; Gene Tox Program). Such changes in the P/N ratio has been suggested due to unbalanced changes in number of both PCE and NCE (Suzuki et al., 1989,1993). The P/N ratio may be altered in several ways- acceleration of differentiation of erythrocytes from erythroblasts, inhibition of erythroblast division, recovery of erythroblast division are some of them. Lead nitrate treatment for example, resulted in a spurt in the erythropoiesis as was evidenced by a significant increase in the ratio of Polychromatic to Normochromatic erythrocytes ratio (Jagetia et al., 1998). The frequency of micronuclei in this case did not show a dose related increase in mice. However,

the increase in micronuclei may be owing to the induction of DNA strand breaks by lead nitrate. Lead nitrate treatment induced DNA strand breaks significantly in fresh water mussel foot (Black et al., 1996).

Genotoxicity studies also provide a means of indirectly detecting the presence of metabolically formed reactive intermediates. The result from a wide variety of in vitro and in vivo genotoxicity bioassays indicate that 2,4-D has little, if any, genotoxicity potential. These findings are consistent with the lack of evidence for the presence of reactive intermediates obtained in metabolism studies and also consistent with the lack of structural features of 2,4-D which are known to be associated with the biological or chemical reactivity.

The results of the most of the bacterial mutagenicity tests including *Salmonella typhimurium* and *Escherichia coli* have been eventually negative (Zetterberg, 1978). Tests conducted with and without the presence of rat S9 (post mitochondrial liver homogenate) further gave negative results (Zetterberg et al., 1977; Simmon et al., 1977; Waters et al., 1980). In mammalian cell lines in which unscheduled DNA repair and sister chromatid exchange (SCE) bioassays were studied, mixed results are reported (Styles, 1977; Waters et al., 1980; Calusen et al., 1990; Jacobi and Witte, 1991). The marginally positive results often occurred only at toxic doses (Korte and Jalal, 1982; Clausen et al., 1990).

The in vitro mutagenicity / genotoxicity data suggest that 2,4-D has no or very little genotoxic potential. This conclusion was reached in a review of the genotoxic potential of 2,4-D (CCT, 1987). The lack of genotoxicity in in vitro bacterial and mammalian test system which has included an exogenous source of metabolic activation provided evidence that 2,4-D was not metabolized to potentially reactive intermediates. While in plant cells, 2,4-D has been demonstrated to induce chromosomal aberration, (Khalaktar and Bharagava, 1985; Sidorov et al., 1988, Pavilica et al., 1991). However, as discussed in the CCT report cited above, since 2,4-D was to be highly active and toxic to plants, studies on the genotoxicity of 2,4-D in this organism was thought to be more appropriate for determination of genotoxic potential.

Several studies though have been made in human population. Linnainmaa (1983) and Linnainmaa and Vainio (1983) reported that there was no apparent dose response between the reported urinary 2,4-D concentration and the number of SCE's observed in peripheral lymphocytes, and SCE were elevated in both exposed group of workers who were also smokers. A similar observation was reported by Mustonen et al., (1986) in which exposure to 2,4-D had no apparent effects on SCE frequency, since the incidence of SCE was elevated in smokers of both control and exposed group. There has been several studies of human lymphocytes exposed *in vivo*, which indicated that the 2,4-D exposure as well as concomitant exposure to other chemicals has no effect on chromosomal aberration or SCE frequency (Hogstedt and Westerlund, 1980; Mulcahy, 1980; Linnainmaa, 1983,1984; Mustonen et al., 1986,1989). There seems to be no conclusive evidence to suggest that 2,4-D is clastogenic in humans.

The result of some SCE studies, using peripheral lymphocytes of rats, and the bone marrow of mice and Chinese hamsters indicated that 2,4-D exposure in animals resulted no significant clastogenic activity (Lamb et al., 1981; Linnainmaa, 1984; Mustonen et al., 1986,1989). Two micronucleus bioassays by the exposure of 2,4-D at 100mg/Kg via intraperitoneal injection also showed no induction of micronuclei either (Jenssen and Renberg 1976; Schop et al., 1990). Nevertheless, a few researchers have reported results for *in vivo* genotoxicity testing of 2,4-D that would not appear to be in accordance with the weight of the experimental data (Pilinskaya, 1974; Turkula and Jalal, 1987; Adhikari and Grover, 1988). At lower doses (10 and 50mg/kg body weight) no effect on chromosomal aberrations was observed. However, the genotoxic effects did appear in rats exposed to 75, 100 and 150mg/kg for 24 h (Turkula and Jalal, 1987). Adhikari and Grover (1988) have also reported increased chromosomal damage in rat bone marrow as a result of exposure of rats to 2,4-D. Seiler (1979), reported that a single 200mg/kg body weight dose of 2,4-D induced inhibition of testicular DNA synthesis in mice. Certain other non carcinogenic agents have been observed to induce a positive response (Schop et al., 1990).

In *Drosophila melanogaster* the great majority of results have been negative (Vogel and Chandler, 1973,1974; Magnusson et al., 1977; Woodruff et al., 1983; Zimmering et al., 1985). Somatic mutations induced by 2,4-D exposure have been observed only in unstable strains of fruit fly (Magnusson et al., 1973; Rasmuson and Svahlin 1978).

Garret et al (1989), evaluated the genotoxic level of 2,4-D with a moderate response. The positive correlation between the cytogenetic damage and sperm abnormality was shown. A dose dependent increase in percentage of CA in spermatocytes and sperm head abnormalities was further reported (Amer and Aly, 2001). Reports of 2,4-D as a moderate genotoxicant also appeared simultaneously (Madrigal-Bujaidar, 2001). If some studies indicated an increase of malignant tumour in 2,4-D exposed people (Hardell, 1977), others confirmed its clastogenic effects in plant system (Ateeq et al., 2002).

Reviews of the mutagenicity of PCP were presented in NTP Technical Report 349 (NTP, 1989) and more recently by Seiler (1991). Pentachlorophenol does not appear to be a strong gene mutagen, but there is some indication that it has clastogenic potential. Results of bacterial tests for induction of gene mutations (Anderson et al., 1972; Shirasu, 1975; Simmon and Kauhanen, 1978; Haworth et al., 1983; Moriya et al., 1983) or growth inhibition due to DNA damage (Shirasu, 1975) were negative, with the exception of a study using phenobarbital- or 5,6-benzoflavone-induced rat liver S9 (Nishimura et al., 1982). However, positive results were obtained with pentachlorophenol in gene mutation assays in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (Fahrig, 1974; Fahrig et al., 1978) but not in assays for induction of mitotic recombination (Simmon and Kauhanen, 1978).

The results for induction of chromosome non disjunction or sex chromosome loss were negative in *Drosophila melanogaster* (Ramel and Magnusson, 1979), and further, no increase in the frequency of sex-linked recessive lethal mutations occurred in germ cells of male *D. melanogaster* (Vogel and Chandler, 1974). In cultured Chinese hamster ovary cells (CHO), pentachlorophenol (91.6% pure) induced small increases in sister chromatid

exchanges (Galloway et al., 1987), while, Ishidate and Sofuni (1985), observed no induction of chromosomal aberrations in Chinese hamster lung fibroblasts.

Additional evidence of in vitro clastogenicity came from a study in which a major rodent metabolite of Pentachlorophenol, tetrachlorohydroquinone, was shown to induce significant dose-related increases in micronuclei in CHO cells (Jansson and Jansson, 1992). Major impurities identified in the pentachlorophenol (91.6% pure), used in the NTP genotoxicity tests were tetrachlorophenols (6.5%), octachlorodibenzop-dioxin (2%), and hexachlorobenzene (10ppm). All these compounds tested negative in the *Salmonella typhimurium* gene mutation assay (Haworth et al., 1983; Zeiger et al., 1988).

PCP is regarded as clastogenic in both in vivo and in vitro tests (Seiler, 1991), while Obe et al., (1982) suggested that in chromosomal damage, DNA is the primary target leading to misrepair or misreplication of DNA. A pointer to this mechanism could be the covalent binding of PCP to DNA. It was confirmed in an in vitro incubation with a metabolic activation system (Van Ommen et al., 1986). Rat microsomal preparation were able to convert PCP to tetrachlorohydroquinone and tetrachlorocatechol in changing ratios (1.2-2.5), depending on the enzyme induction procedure used (Van Ommen et al., 1986). Both isomers were proposed to form semiquinone radicals in the presence of oxygen and this mechanism produce DNA strand breaks.

In aquatic organisms like zebra mussel and snail, PCP was able to induce micronuclei and DNA strand breaks (Pavlica et al., 2000, 2002). Various forms of structural chromosomal damage in *H. fossilis* was also observed by Ali and Ahmad (1998). Recent reports on *allium* root tip showed, this chemical to be clastogenic, as it inhibited root growth and inflicted depression in mitotic index with increased frequency of CA (Ateeq et al., 2002). The micronuclei formation was shown to be due to aneugenic effect of PCP (Pavlica et al., 1999).

SUMMARY

The study aimed at evaluating the extent of genetic damage by widely used weedicides, PCP and 2,4-D by cytogenetic parameters, such as chromosome aberration (CA), micronucleus (MN) and mitotic index (MI) tests on bone marrow cells of mice, *Mus musculus* by an in vivo system.

Three sub lethal concentrations were set up according to the separate LD50 of these chemicals. Damage was noted at four different intervals of time in order to find the maximum impact of chemical on cell cycle and the functioning of its own repair system against these chemicals.

A maximum of 18.33 ± 0.05 frequency of chromosomal aberration due to PCP was recorded as against the clastogenic potential of 15.66 ± 0.05 for 2,4-D. It was seen, the maximum impact of chemical PCP on mice bone marrow was at 24 h of treatment. There was a significant rise in this duration consistently when compared to other durations.

The same pattern was observed in 2,4-D, beyond 48 h durations, clastogenic damage decreased with increase in time. Consequently, while increase in concentration, the frequency of CA likewise increased with either chemicals. No significant increase could be found in solvent and normal controls.

Both chemicals induced chromatid and chromosome aberrations, while chromatid type being more abundant. Thus chromatid type gaps were frequently observed in all concentrations of PCP and 2,4-D. Alterations such as breaks, translocations stickiness and pulverization were also observed in that order. There was an increase in stickiness and pulverization initially followed by a decline the duration increased.

Micronucleus assay authenticated these results further. The frequency of micronucleus formation showed significant increase at 24 h of treatment for both chemicals. Concentration dependent pattern was yet again confirmed. The maximum value of 1.08 ± 0.003 of MN was recorded as against the figures of 1.05 ± 0.003 in 2,4-D, a comparative mutagenic effect in favor of PCP was noticed.

An increase in micronucleated normochromatic erythrocytes was recorded at every concentration. Nonetheless it was not statistically significant when compared to the solvent and normal controls. Dose dependent increases in MNPCEs were clearly observed for PCP and 2,4-D. However no significant change in the ratio of PCEs / NCEs argues convincingly against cytotoxic effects of any of the chemicals used in present observations.

Mitotic index studies indicated an inhibition of cell division in a dose dependent manner although, the increase was not statistically significant. The mild cytotoxic effect was suggested. Observations proved the susceptibility of mammals to genetic toxicity of PCP and 2,4-D. PCP being the most toxic and 2,4-D reasonable toxic but both mutagenic mammalian system, the discontinuation or minimum possible exposure to humans is recommended therefore.

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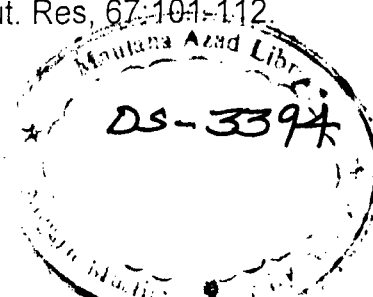
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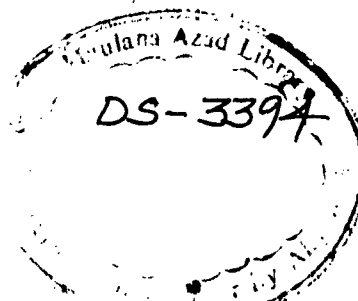
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Cross references*